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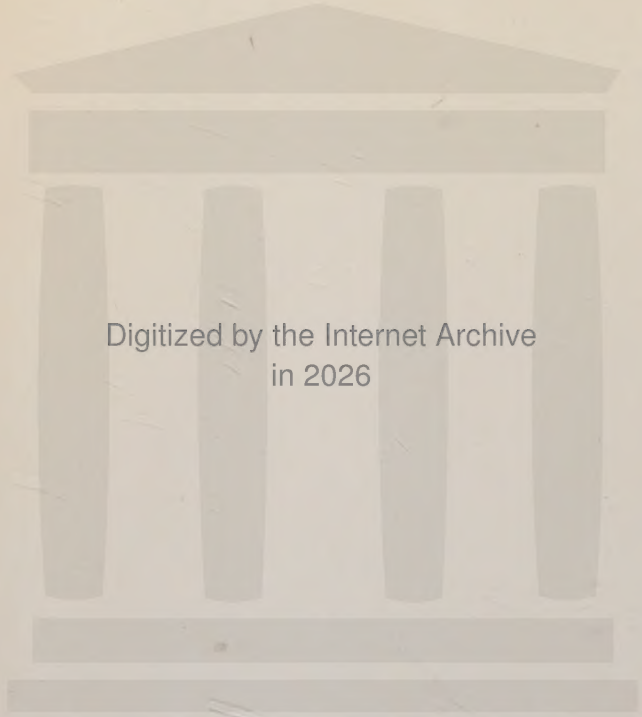

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STUDIES IN ADULT EDUCATION

URBAN INFLUENCES ON HIGHER EDUCATION IN ENGLAND AND THE UNITED STATES

STUDIES IN ADULT EDUCATION

These seven studies were undertaken in connection with the general efforts which the Carnegie Corporation of New York and the American Association for Adult Education are making toward the improved education of adults in the United States. The first six were made by investigators under the auspices of the Corporation and the Association, the seventh by a Commission of the American Library Association.

URBAN INFLUENCES ON HIGHER EDUCATION IN ENGLAND AND THE UNITED STATES. *By Parke R. Kolbe.*

ADULT LEARNING. *By Edward L. Thorndike and Others.*

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LIBRARIES AND ADULT EDUCATION. *A Study by the American Library Association.*

THE MACMILLAN COMPANY

URBAN INFLUENCES ON HIGHER EDUCATION IN ENGLAND AND THE UNITED STATES

BY

PARKE R. KOLBE, PH.D.

PRESIDENT OF THE POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE
OF BROOKLYN

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PART I
ENGLAND

PART I: ENGLAND

CHAPTER I

Introduction

An experience of nearly fifteen years in institutions of the urban type has convinced the author that these do actually represent a departure from the traditional which is daily growing more apparent and which is directly conditioned by their surroundings. In so far as is known, no effort has ever been made to present systematically the historical developments which have led to these results, and no analysis of present conditions in urban higher education has ever been attempted. As a result, the author has had to depend largely upon personal experience and observation, since the literature bearing upon the subject is, for the most part, incidental and is distributed over the whole field of education. These pages dealing with the English universities are the result of personal visitation of most of the institutions treated, and of personal conference with many leaders vitally concerned with modern English university life. The sources for references to the urban institutions of the United States are to be found not only in the literature quoted, but also in the long personal association which the author has been privileged to enjoy with the men who are making academic history in the great cities of our country today. In a very modest way he has been privileged to be a part of the movement herein described, and this participation has been not only an education in itself, but an inspiration in the preparation of this study.

Sincere appreciation is hereby expressed to the author's fellow workers in the Association of Urban Universities, and particularly to that small group of urban university presidents whose informal meeting each year has come to be a major source of benefit and inspiration in the work. To those whose counsel and advice was so unselfishly given to the author while in England, he feels an especial obligation. Particularly does he wish to express his thanks to Principal A. E. Morgan of University College, Hull, and to Professor Robert Peers, of University College, Nottingham, for their careful reading of his work. Thanks are also due to Mr. H. Pilkington Turner of the Victoria University, Manchester, Mr. E. Hickinbotham of the University of Liverpool, Mr. B. Mouat Jones of the Manchester Municipal College of Technology and numerous other university officials, for their gracious reception and personal counsel. Useful information was gained at first hand from Mr. Albert Mansbridge during his recent visit to America and from Mr. J. M. MacTavish, general secretary of the Workers' Educational Association in London. Professor Robert Petsch of the University of Hamburg, both in personal conferences and in correspondence has been untiring in his efforts to give information regarding conditions in Germany. Finally, the author wishes to express his especial obligation to Mr. R. H. Simpson of the American University Union, in London, and to Miss Dorothy Jones of the World Association for Adult Education, in London, for their unfailing efforts to make available to him all possible sources of information and for their help in arranging meetings with representatives of the English universities.

To the American the English universities were for

many years uncharted country. Basic differences in system and a nomenclature largely unintelligible to American ears were responsible for an ignorance which unfortunately is still not entirely removed. For years the stream of American students flowed strongly to Germany, and the academic terminology of Heidelberg was better understood in the United States than that of Oxford. The establishment of the Rhodes scholarships modified this situation to some degree, and the great war severed, for a time at least, the links with Germany and forged new ones with England and France. To these new connections with England several other things have contributed. The English, with commendable cooperation, found it possible to give the Ph.D. degree, formerly unobtainable in that country. On our own side of the water, the establishment of the American Council on Education and the American University Union, and the adoption by these bodies of international educational relations as a major service, have served to turn the eyes of the American university world toward the English universities. Finally, numerous books and articles descriptive of English university conditions have enjoyed wide circulation in the United States since the war.[1]

In spite of all these things one may not assume even in American college circles of to-day a very detailed knowledge of the English system of higher education. For this reason the writer may perhaps be pardoned for the occasional introduction of explanations and facts which will seem elementary indeed to him

[1] Among the best of these is the work of George Edward Maclean, formerly president of the State University of Iowa, and director of the American University Union in London, entitled "Studies in Higher Education in England and Scotland," and published by the U. S. Bureau of Education as Bulletin, 1917, No. 16.

who knows the English universities at first hand.

The development of great cities in England has been more nearly contemporaneous with the same phenomenon in the United States than might at first seem probable to us who are used to looking upon the English civilization as so much older than our own. A product of modern industrialism, the great city did not become an important economic feature in any country until the comparatively recent developments of transportation and communication made it possible in all. As a result, the effect of the concentration of population was exerted upon the English universities at about the same time that the same process was going on in the United States. It did not appear as an important factor in higher education in either country until the last decades of the past century. In America, however, it met a pioneer condition practically without tradition, while in England a centuries-old university system and a clearly defined order of class distinction offered tenacious resistance to innovation.

The difference in results obtained is perhaps not so great as might at first be supposed, but, while the development of the modern urban university has taken place in America almost spontaneously, one gains the idea that the process in England has been more laborious and slow. Certainly the older American universities have resisted the inevitable changes less than have Oxford and Cambridge. Despite this, however, the demands of urban life are reflected in the curricula of the two older English universities by such courses as those in architecture, education and engineering, though one looks in vain for developments comparable

to the new Graduate School of Business Administration at Harvard.

Strange to say, however, Cambridge has the honor of having originated university extension work in England and the first tutorial classes for workmen were offered by Oxford. Albert Mansbridge, writing in 1920 concerning the attitude of the workers, said:[2]

> A new attitude was developed towards the universities, and towards learning in general, which rapidly took the place of past misunderstandings, suspicion or indifference. Not that there was necessarily approval of the actions of universities, or acquiescence in the fact that Oxford and Cambridge had conformed to an aristocratic system, but there was a belief in their possibilities and a trust in their integrity of purpose. The absence from them of the mind and spirit of labor was held to be a hampering condition that was now gradually being rectified.

In one respect, the giving of degrees, the English universities have maintained a conservatism not shared by the American system of higher education. Our democratic ideals, in accordance with which every one is entitled to the right to attempt higher education, have grown so confused in the popular mind that modern American youth believes himself entitled to the degree (as well as the opportunity) after the customary residence period has been endured. No such confusion exists in England. Much work is done, particularly in the extension and tutorial classes, without any thought whatsoever of "credit," certificate or degree. Nor may the separate university colleges give degrees, this privilege being reserved for the univer-

[2] An Adventure in Working Class Education, by Albert Mansbridge, p. 43. London, Longmans, Green and Co., 1920.

sities alone. Nor may the degree usually be gained by evening study, nor by non-residence work (except at the University of London by examination). As a result the university degree in England (except the "external" degree at London) means that its holder has spent several years in residence and has passed rigorous examinations, both for entrance and for graduation. Thus the responsibility for success is put upon the student rather than upon the teacher, as is too often the case in America. The result is a comparatively smaller number of degrees than with us, but a certainty of excellence which we do not everywhere attain.

A professor at an English university, who had served as exchange professor in America, said to the writer: "I am convinced that some of your American institutions are doing graduate work equal to anything to be found in Europe. I wonder however whether you can possibly produce enough competent instructors to make *all* your graduate work of equally high standard?" The difference between America and England in this respect seemed to him to be that between mass production and the individual job. Perhaps this very instance best illustrates how our own institutions have welcomed the flood of students which the concentration of population in cities has poured into them, while England, on the other hand, by class distinction and by reluctance to popularize the curriculum, still keeps its older universities, at least primarily for the few.

It is inevitable, however, that even in England the liberal school of educational thought must have its following. This group has rallied primarily to the cause of workmen's education, and its prophet in non-

academic circles is Albert Mansbridge, founder of the Workers' Educational Association and chairman of the World Association for Adult Education. His philosophy may perhaps be best understood from his own words:[3]

> The most educated man is he who most completely fulfils his allotted task in spirit and in act, whether it be the digging of a trench or the writing of a poem. In that nation which would most fully correspond to its destiny, every unit would be sought out through the wisdom of the whole, and developed for the tasks necessary for the life of the whole. . . . Education and knowledge must not be confused. Knowledge is the instrument in the hands of a man, and if he be educated, and therefore reaching out to the higher things, his knowledge will be used for purposes ministering to the common good.

The application of these principles has had a profound effect on university life in England and, as will appear in later chapters, has won a following from among the best minds in the academic world.

In everything which is said concerning English universities, careful distinction must be made between the older universities of Oxford and Cambridge, on the one hand, and the newer urban or provincial universities, on the other. For centuries England felt no need for institutions of the latter type. They are the direct outgrowth of the economic needs of the great cities which modern industrialism has created. As a result their curricula differ markedly from those of the older universities. In most cases there is plainly discernible an effort to offer subjects which will fit students for urban conditions, and especially for local urban conditions.

[3] Op. cit., p. XV.

Such a development is at first glance entirely comparable to that which has produced great urban universities in the United States. There are however certain marked differences. The urban universities of England are perhaps more largely vocational in their purpose. There is in them no such considerable number of persons actuated by the same motives which move American students to attend the arts college. In visiting these institutions one realizes, in spite of the presence of arts faculties, that the arts college as such is a distinctly American feature of higher education. The explanation lies perhaps in the fact that greater natural resources and a resulting greater national wealth enable American young people to defer the choice of a vocation to a later time of life and meanwhile enjoy a longer period of purely general education.[4] At any rate, in order to find conditions in a way comparable to those at our arts colleges, one must look to Oxford and Cambridge rather than to the newer universities, although it must be borne in mind that the standard of work at Oxford and Cambridge is more nearly that of the American graduate school.

A second major result of the growth of the modern city has been the intensification of the British workman's desire for education. History shows that the presence and manifestation of this desire antedated the present industrial era by many decades. For a century the laboring classes have experimented, and have been experimented on, in the matter of education. Their growing class solidarity, rendered possible by urban concentration, has given a power to their demand

[4] Principal A. E. Morgan of University College, Hull, a careful observer of American conditions, suggests as a further reason the fact that boys are probably carried further at school in England than in the American high schools.

which the universities could no longer ignore. The chief result is to be seen in the tutorial classes, carried on jointly by the Workers' Educational Association and all, or nearly all, British universities. So largely has this tendency dominated the field, that adult education in England to-day means in the majority of cases workmen's education. Other efforts at adult education in which workmen are not concerned are few indeed and comparatively negligible in importance.

It has been the purpose of this introduction to indicate in brief outline some of the outstanding facts in English university life as influenced by modern urban conditions. Most of the points here mentioned will be treated in greater detail in following chapters. Perhaps the general picture may be conveyed most clearly to the reader by the simple statement that the growth of the modern industrial city in England has been followed by two great results which have powerfully affected higher education. They are:

(1) The increase in the demand of the working class for adult education.

(2) The foundation of the new urban universities.

CHAPTER II

Limitations on Higher Education in England [1]

Until the time of the founding of the new universities, only persons of considerable means could afford higher education for their children (though this was not equally true in Scotland). Even to-day the formal education of the working classes ceases, generally speaking, with the elementary school, since England has no system of free secondary education comparable to our own. The new universities by their lower cost and their location in large centers of population have done much to make university training possible for the poor, but even now the children of working-class parents form no such considerable part of the university student body in England as in the United States. This being the case, the poor cannot yet regard higher education as available to them as a class, but only as available to the exceptional individual. In the new universities this limitation proceeds from economic considerations alone. The low earning power of the English workman makes it often difficult for him to afford secondary and higher education for his children. When he is financially able to do so, there is no social or religious bar to prevent their

[1] Especial acknowledgment is due to the "Report of the Joint Committee of University and Working-class Representatives on the Relation of the University to the Higher Education of Workpeople," entitled "Oxford and Working Class Education," Second Edition, Revised, Oxford, Clarendon Press, 1909. This work will henceforth, for the sake of brevity, be mentioned as the "Report."

attendance at the new universities, and large numbers are actually there enrolled.

At Oxford and Cambridge the case is not so simple. It is less than fifty years since religious tests were barred at the older universities, and the old traditions have naturally not been entirely forgotten though religion is no longer a bar. The cost of living also is relatively high, as must be expected in institutions of high grade, attended by many people of wealth. The most powerful factor however lies in the fact that England regards her two old universities as existing largely for the purpose of giving to a select class "the education of a gentleman." So firmly fixed are class distinctions in British life, that it is difficult for an American to realize the bar which this conception sets up. However the Report (quoted above) does not believe it to be impossible (p. 77):

> We have seen no reason at all for agreeing with the suggestion occasionally made that workmen students would not mix well with men drawn from the "public" schools, or that they would introduce a discordant element into college life. Though it is hard for a poor man to enter a college, he finds in it, once he has entered, a spirit of fellowship and equality, and if we may be permitted to express our opinion on a matter on which certainty is impossible, it seems to us that they would make very valuable contributions to the social life of Oxford, and that they would teach other undergraduates at least as much as they would learn from them.

To understand fully the situation just outlined, it is necessary to glance at the history of university development in England, and for this purpose Oxford may serve as a model. It is generally believed that Ox-

ford came into existence as the result of a migration of students from the University of Paris, about the middle of the twelfth century. Paris in that day represented not a formal university organization in the modern sense, but rather a loose aggregation of students gathered to hear certain teachers, licensed to give instruction. Certainly both the Paris and the Oxford of that time were, like all medieval universities, open to rich and poor alike. In this respect they had perhaps more in common with the American university of to-day than with the present Oxford or Cambridge. Extensive provision was made at Oxford for the poor student as is to be seen from the following extracts from the college statutes of those early days:[2]

Balliol College, Statutes of Dervorguilla, A. D. 1282.

"First, we will and ordain that our Scholars, all and singular, be required, on Sundays and the principal feast-days, to be present at the Divine Office————And in order the better to provide for the sustenation of poor men, for whose advantage we intend to labour, we will that the richer in the society of our Scholars, shall give diligence to live so temperately that the poor be in no way burdened on account of onerous expenses————Let our Scholars have one poor Scholar assigned to them by our Procurators, to whom they are required to supply the remains of their table ————." Besides no person was to be elected a Fellow "who has any ecclesiastical cure, who has at his disposal more than 40 shillings of fixed net income." A Fellow acquiring income of more than 100 shillings must vacate his place after twelve months.

Merton, Statutes of the House of Scholars of Merton, 1264. "The Scholars to be of our kin, so far as there may be found in it men honest, capable, and willing to advance (in

[2] Quoted by the Report (p. 91ff.) from the Ancient College Statutes, printed for the Royal Commission of 1852.

study)." The Warden is to search for poor children of the founders' families and have them educated so as to succeed to the scholarships.

Oriel, 1326. Founded for ten Scholars in Theology, well suited and disposed for this science.—The Scholars to be honest, peaceable, and humble-poor, suited to study and "willing to make progress."

Queens, 1340. The College was established for a Provost and twelve Fellows mentioned by name. There is also a class of "poor boys" reading for the Arts degree. Various luxurious practices are forbidden: e.g. keeping hawks and hounds, musical instruments, horses or other animals. The poor boys to live "on the alms of the Scholars," with aid from the college.

New College, 1379. The College to consist of one Warden and seventy poor, needy scholars, clerks, to study in the faculties of Theology, Law, Canon and Civil, and Philosophy.

The emphasis on poor students in the statutes just quoted should not lead to the false impression that Oxford was established for the poor alone. As a matter of fact the attendance of wealthier individuals is to be inferred from the very prohibitions against extravagances which were found necessary. Our main interest, however, lies in the fact that the student body was recruited from all ranks of society, and that the poor boy as well as the rich *could* attend. How then did Oxford develop into an institution primarily reserved for the wealthier classes? As a matter of fact, it is probable that even in the earlier days, the poor students were considerably in the minority. Rashdall[3] says:

After all, as we see from the university records, it was only a very small proportion of the students in a university,

[3] Universities in the Middle Ages, Vol. II, pp. 658ff.

and a still smaller proportion of university graduates, who belonged to the pauper or servitor class. The vast majority of scholars were of a social position intermediate between the highest and the very lowest—sons of knights and yeomen, merchants, tradesmen, or thrifty artisans, nephews of successful ecclesiastics, or promising lads who had attracted the notice of a neighboring Abbott or Archdeacon. ————A "poor scholar" in the sense of the College founders meant only a scholar unable to support himself at the University without assistance.

For the increasingly aristocratic character of the university the Report finds two reasons: the increase in the fixed expenses of college life, and "the intellectual and economic revolutions of the sixteenth century," as a result of which "the love of learning spread upwards, while yeomen evicted from their lands were in no position to send their sons to Oxford." The bitter reproaches hurled against the aristocratic tone of the universities by the working-class representatives of modern times, find an early and interesting counterpart in the words of Latimer:[4]

If ye bring it to pass, that the yeomanry be not able to put their sons to school (as indeed Universities do wondrously decay already), I say ye pluck salvation from the people, and utterly destroy the realm. Is this realm taught by rich men's sons? No, no; read the chronicles. By yeoman's sons the faith of Christ is, and hath been maintained chiefly.

If the economic argument be here substituted for the religious, those words might come from the mouth of an English labor leader of to-day.

[4] First sermon preached before King Edward VI (quoted in Report).

Enough has been said to outline the gradual change in Oxford from a democratic to an autocratic basis. For rank alone, the power of wealth has been in part substituted in our modern industrial times. But even from this supposedly hostile soil there grew men who thought fairly, who heeded the call of the working classes and who, in the epoch-making report, here so liberally quoted, paved the way for that first step in the direction of educational democracy, the Tutorial Classes.

Having outlined briefly the barriers which the older English system of higher education had erected against the poorer classes, let us turn to the workmen themselves and study their reaction to the situation. The more detailed story of the many attempts which they made, and which were made in their behalf, to secure university training or its equivalent, must be reserved for another chapter. Here we shall try to outline only the attitude which the English workman has developed toward the universities. The keynote is the same sounded by Latimer, already quoted. "Without us you cannot live, for we are the strength of the Nation"! This call was played in every key, from that of extreme radicalism and overthrow to that of cooperation in solving the problem. Naturally the only tangible results have come from the latter class. The entire labor movement, however, is united in one belief, based on class solidarity, namely, that no advantage can come to them from the selection for education of a few of their most promising representatives. Such persons, they argue, would merely rise above their fellows and be alienated from the general body. Education, they believe, can only benefit the workman, if it be made available to the class as a whole, rather than to the

individual. Comprehension of this viewpoint is of prime importance for the interpretation of the effect of urbanized and organized labor's efforts to gain the privilege of secondary and higher education.

In his quest the workingman has proceeded always from the basis of class alone, and perhaps therein may a certain weakness be found. A recent writer on workers' education [5] exposes this with utmost frankness:

> As a unit in a group effort for more complete participation in the common life, the working-man, however, has been frankly sectarian. He has sought information as a member of a social class, a voter or a trade union official. ——————The content of instruction in agencies for Workers' Education is thus dictated not by love of knowledge for its own sake, though that may be, and often is, present. Neither is it prescribed by the desire on the part of the working-class students to secure personal aggrandizement or vocational advancement.
>
> Labor colleges recognize the insignificance of the improvement to be obtained by workers in capitalistic society through promotion in the shop or withdrawal from the working class. Consequently, working-men enrolled as students in the movement are committed to some program of class action, for which special knowledge and a peculiar technique are necessary. In other words, Workers' Education is not a course in general for people in general. It is a discipline for a specific purpose. It concerns itself in teaching the social sciences to men and women who seek to use that knowledge for class, and possibly social advancement.

Such a statement, which undoubtedly represents quite accurately the sentiment of a considerable branch of the English labor movement, shows at once why

[5] Margaret T. Hodgen, "Workers' Education in England and the United States," pp. 4-5. London, Kegan Paul, Trench, Trubner & Co., Ltd. New York, E. P. Dutton & Co., 1925.

the universities have found it impossible to satisfy all the wishes of the working classes for education. No reputable institution of learning could associate itself with a program whose purpose is to teach propaganda rather than fact. To the credit of the English universities it must be said that freedom of thought and opinion is undoubtedly even more prevalent in them than in our own institutions. Economic and political theory of every sort may be freely presented and discussed, as is actually the case in the great system of tutorial classes, arranged by and for workmen in connection with the universities. But no university may be true to its high estate if it turn aside from the presentation of unbiased truth to the promotion of the interests of any class. The result has been the establishment, with the cooperation of trades unions, of a system of labor colleges. Notwithstanding the existence, however, of this more radical labor wing, the great body of English workmen is definitely interested in the possibilities for education held out to them by the universities, and is willing to cooperate with them.

Generally speaking, the manufacturers of England have been slower to recognize the value of higher education than have the industrial leaders of the United States. A few nationally known companies have introduced their own training courses, and there have of course been notable gifts by manufacturers for university purposes. But there seems to be little in England comparable to the systematic efforts made by American industrial firms, not only to secure the best products of the colleges, but also to seek out and educate those employees who give promise of ability. As a result, it is more difficult in England, and certainly not so common as in the United States, for a workman's

son to rise beyond his class through the avenues of education or promotion. Nor is the same opportunity offered him for evening study, leading to a degree, as may be found with us. Most of the best English technical colleges offer evening work, but it is largely of a vocational or trade-school nature, and most of the courses thus given are not recognized as equivalent to the intensive, university-grade work of the day session, nor do they lead to a degree. To be sure, it is always possible for a student, working thus irregularly to take the external examinations of the University of London, but in practice this is not often successfully done. Thus the son of the English workman is usually hindered by poverty from attending the regular day session of a university or technical school, and the evening classes offer him but little chance to work for the degree. Besides he has usually had no opportunity to secure the secondary school preparation necessary for entrance to a higher institution. These conditions have undoubtedly been improved by the establishment of the newer universities bringing, as they do, higher educational opportunities to the great cities directly. But the flexibility and opportunity of our own democratic system in education, and the financial prosperity of the working classes are sought in vain in the British Isles.

To all these conditions the universities and the better labor element have been keenly alive. The Report says (pp. 48-49):

> The Trade Union secretary and the "Labour Member" need an Oxford education as much, and will use it to as good ends, as the civil servant or the barrister.————A modern university must be accessible to every class, not merely in the formal sense that it admits every applicant

of good character who satisfies its educational requirements, but in the practical sense of making it certain that no one will be excluded merely on the ground of poverty.

Since the publication of this report much has been accomplished which hitherto seemed impossible. Undoubtedly the bond between universities and the working classes is being continually strengthened. But the old limitations are still largely unchanged. To recapitulate, they may be summarized as follows:

(1) The class system
(2) Lack of general free secondary school opportunity
(3) Economic condition of the workers
(4) Distrust of the universities by the more radical labor element
(5) Indifference of the manufacturers.

CHAPTER III

The Beginnings of Adult Education and the Universities

The great forces operative in England since the latter part of the eighteenth century in the establishment of various systems of adult education have, in most cases, looked to the universities or their graduates for help. But not until the second half of the nineteenth century did the universities as such enter actively upon this field. In the discussion of the various demands made upon them, it must be born in mind that English adult education, as previously stated, has always meant predominantly the education of the workman. While the system of the older universities in relation to their regular students was so firmly fixed by long tradition as to be practically incapable of modification, the education of the adult offered an untried field, hampered by no precedent. It was a field where the universities might safely venture without danger to academic standards, the more so since those receiving instruction made primarily no demand for university degrees or honors and were in no sense in competition with the established student body.

Strangely enough, the adult education movement in England has not generally sought the academic diploma or degree from the established universities.[1] As

[1] A tendency toward the granting of diplomas in exceptional cases is to be inferred from the following: "It is a somewhat different point that a few students desire certificates enabling them to qualify for a degree on terms of shorter residence. Neither Oxford nor Cam-

a matter of fact, it has never progressed far enough to allow the formation of a balanced plan of study in any way comparable to the university course. The reasons are obvious. The adult students, being in large part workpeople,[2] could give only a small part of their time to study. They came for the most part unprepared in the basic subjects of secondary, and sometimes even of elementary education. As a result only those studies could be attempted which required no previous knowledge of the subject. But above all they were workpeople, and they were not studying to rise above their class. To such the official university stamp, in the form of degree, certificate or diploma, had but little value.

What then are the purposes which have for more than a century so restlessly driven the English workman to seek education. The answer is commonly summed up in the phrase "to improve his condition," but this answer must be interpreted in the light of the period to which it applies, as well as for the individual. Undoubtedly economic unrest has at all times played a considerable part. Inarticulate and unorganized in earlier times, this unrest has, through trade union organization, become the most important and troublesome feature of English political life and has but recently led to the happily unsuccessful effort to overthrow established government by means of the general strike. It would be unjust, however, to regard economic or political motives as the only reasons for the workman's desire for education. It may be safely stated

bridge have as yet granted a diploma for Extension students, but a 'Scheme of Studies for Diplomas in the Humanities' has been established in the University of London." (W. H. Draper, "University Extension," p. 87, Cambridge Univ. Press, 1923.)

[2] This is especially true of the tutorial classes. University Extension, on the other hand, has included a large proportion of the well-to-do bourgeoisie or gentry.

that the working class of no other nation equals that of Great Britain in its desire for education for the sake of mental satisfaction and improvement. Many a Welsh miner or English textile worker reads and knows his standard English authors more thoroughly than some university graduates. As a reason for this may be advanced the age-long standard and existence of the English workman's estate. Many callings have behind them the century-old traditions of the guilds, while certain occupations are regularly handed down from father to son. It is not strange, under such conditions, that the habits and tastes of the English workman should differ considerably from those of his American brother, newly recruited from the ends of the earth, impermanent in location, and enjoying a considerably greater material prosperity. With such material, seeking varied knowledge and with varied purposes, have the universities and university men had to deal in their cooperation with the movements for adult education.

It would be wrong to assume that the universities have, during the entire period, taken a leading part. Equally wrong is the following analysis [3] in ignoring them entirely. It is illuminating, however, for the earlier periods:

> At the first level, prior to 1830, the initiative in educating the adult poor in England was assumed by the ruling classes under the leadership of the Established Church, the Methodists and certain charitable organizations. The motive of each group was determined by its peculiar interest either in maintaining the ignorance or increasing the literacy of the poor.
>
> At the second level, between 1830 and 1900, the initiative

[3] Hodgen, *op. cit.*, p. IX.

shifted from worker to religionist, from religionist to philanthropist. The objective of education, so clearly political under the Chartists, grew less defined with each new effort. Finally, under the Christian Socialists and in Toynbee Hall, economic and political motives were merged with diffused esthetic and humanitarian impulses.

After 1900 the initiative was assumed by organized labor. The educational objective of the working class then became control over the political and economic aspects of working-class existence. Its method was educational enterprise administered by trade union organization.

I. The Mechanics Institutes

For the first formal influence of the university milieu on the education of the adult in Great Britain, perhaps in the world, we must turn to the city of Glasgow. In his will, dated May 7, 1795, John Anderson, Professor of Natural Philosophy in the University of Glasgow, bequeathed the whole of his property "to the public for the good of mankind and the improvement of science, in an institution to be denominated 'Anderson's University'." [4] With this bequest, which included a museum, library and apparatus, the founder desired to furnish liberal and scientific education for all classes, and an education particularly adapted to the needs of the new type of workman, called a mechanic, who had been brought into being by the industrial revolution and the growing application of science to industry in urban centers. So strong was Anderson's appreciation of the need of such education that he himself in 1796 gave a course in physics which was opened to mechanics and others interested.[5]

[4] Quoted in the Calendar for 1925-26 of the Royal Technical College of Glasgow, p. 30.

[5] "Adult Education Committee," Final Report, Great Britain,

On June 9, 1796, the Andersonian Institution or University was constituted by the magistrates of the city, and was, in 1877, incorporated as Anderson's College under an Act of Parliament. On Professor Anderson's death, he was succeeded, in 1796, by Dr. Thomas Garnett, as Professor of Natural Philosophy and Chemistry. He was in turn followed in 1799 by Dr. George Birkbeck, whose activities led finally to the great movement for the establishment of mechanics' institutes.

In 1800 Dr. Birkbeck began a series of popular lectures at Anderson's University. During four years' time he lectured to 500 artisans. His example had a profound effect in other communities. At Edinburgh, Aberdeen, and Hawick large audiences assembled for similar purposes. Particularly significant for our purpose, however, is the ensuing history of Dr. Birkbeck's efforts in Glasgow. In 1823 a section of students left Anderson's University and founded a school of their own, called the Glasgow Mechanics' Institution, Dr. Birkbeck being their first patron. After more than half a century this institution became the College of Science and Arts of Glasgow and a few years later was reunited with its parent institution, Anderson's University, as a part of the Glasgow and West of Scotland Technical College, now the great Royal Technical College of Glasgow. The efforts of that remarkable man, Dr. Birkbeck, were, however, not confined to Glasgow alone. In 1824, being then resident in London, he became the first president of the London Mechanics Institute, patterned after the Glasgow original.

The end of the first quarter of the nineteenth cen-

Ministry of Reconstruction, London, 1919. Temporarily out of print, but to be reprinted by H. M. Stationery Office.

tury found the Mechanics Institute movement swelling toward flood tide. In 1821 the Edinburgh School of Art was founded for the working classes. In 1823 mechanics' institutions were established in Liverpool and, as already noted, in London. Manchester and Leeds followed in 1824 and Bristol in 1826. "In 1850 there were in England about 610 literary and mechanics' institutions, with a membership of 102,000; in Scotland fifty-five institutes, with 12,500 members." [6] Mansbridge [7] quotes Macvey Napier as writing in 1824 from London:

> The populace are seeking excitement in the formation of mechanics' institutions and in the purchase of cheap periodical publications. The number of these in circulation here is quite incalculable. The Mechanics' Magazine sells about 16,000 copies a week, the Chemists 6,000, and so on. I was the other night at the Mechanics' Institute there with Brougham. There were about 800 persons present, and I never saw a more orderly or attentive audience. There are about 1,500 workmen subscribers at the rate of a guinea a year each. The applications for admittance are necessarily numerous, and it is estimated that in two or three years there will be six institutions—four in London and two in the Borough—all as large as the present one.

The reaction came about the middle of the century and from that time the interest rapidly waned. Among the reasons advanced for this decline are: poor preparation of the students; disappointment of the workmen who had set their hopes for advancement too high; and "the overwhelmingly philanthropic nature of the inspiring and creative force which made it pos-

[6] Report—"Oxford and Working Class Education." *Op. cit.*, p. 3.
[7] Albert Mansbridge, "An Adventure in Working Class Education," p. 2, Longmans, Green & Co., London, 1920.

sible." [8] However, a few institutes have survived even to this day.

For the purpose of our subject, these institutes are of prime importance. They represent the direct influence of the concentration of population (especially the working classes) on higher education. In non-industrial districts, lacking large cities, they found no place. Coming as they did from the initiative of university men, they have repaid their debt to higher education a hundred-fold, for they prepared the way and, in some cases served as the foundation for the establishment of the English newer universities of the urban type.

II. Other Early Efforts

Many of the attempts to carry on adult education during the earlier part of the nineteenth century have but little relation to our subject, which must be confined to those efforts which, either then or later, came into direct relation to the universities. Thus Chartism by its very nature represented a revolt against upper class administration of education and accordingly against the type of education offered by the universities of that day. It was perhaps in part responsible for the decay of the mechanics' institutes, and it undoubtedly laid the foundation for that system of workmen's education which to-day refuses university cooperation and prefers to develop a specialized system of economics for working people, to be taught in labor colleges.

The oldest of all systems of adult education, the Adult School Movement, is still a considerable factor in the field to-day. Beginning at the end of the eigh-

[8] Mansbridge, *op. cit.*, p. 3.

teenth century with the purpose of promoting religious education alone, it was originally administered without connection with the universities. To-day it is one of the agencies cooperating with the Workers' Educational Association and the universities in the formation of tutorial classes, and its educational policy has been widened to embrace the cultural subjects. Other early educational movements, such as a Christian socialism, were but short-lived. Although often drawing upon university men for their leaders, they have made no lasting contributions to university development and need not engage our attention here.

III. The "College" Movement for Work People

The name "college" has always had a peculiar fascination to men engaged in adult education and indicates clearly the fact that the universities were (at least unconsciously) in the minds of those who were endeavoring to build up a new system of education for the workman. Care must be taken to distinguish between the three types of those institutions called "colleges" which grew up between 1842 and the present day, since they are dissimilar in time, initiative and educational philosophy. In fact, they resemble each other only in name and in purpose—the education of the workman. Chronologically listed, in accordance with the time of foundation, they are:

1. People's Colleges.
2. Working Men's Colleges.
3. Labor Colleges.

The first People's College was established at Sheffield in 1842. It is of interest educationally chiefly

because of its democratic form of government, which was vested in the students. For more than thirty years this plan was continued with considerable success, the students refusing meanwhile to receive financial help from outside their own corporation. While Chartist principles of workman's education, unhampered by upper class interference, undoubtedly influenced this peculiar type of organization, it is not difficult to see therein something of the traditional educational democracy of the early medieval universities, a democracy still to be found in the universities of Scotland. As in the medieval universities, the conditions of education were primitive. Mansbridge [9] quotes the Sheffield *Telegraph* of September 30, 1859, regarding this:

> The class-room of the People's College at Sheffield was a ghostly, whitewashed, unplastered garret, not fitted up with the necessities, much less the conveniences of study. In this place the morning classes in winter were especially uninviting, and it required considerable devotion to study to travel through snow at 6:30 in the morning before breakfast to find a room probably without a fire, or one but newly lighted by the monitor student to whose lot it had fallen to perform that and kindred duties.

An educational effort so vigorously pursued must undoubtedly have been of considerable local benefit. For us though there is a wider meaning in the example of this first People's College. First, it paved the way for a whole host of successors and imitators, gradually shading over into the second type mentioned above, the Workmen's College. Thus within less than a quarter of a century "colleges" for the education of the poor were established in Nottingham, Wolverhampton,

[9] *Op. cit.*, p. 4.

Manchester, Ayr, Cambridge, Norwich, Liverpool and London. They were no longer purely vocational schools, as the Mechanics' Institutes had been, but they laid emphasis on the liberal side of education, the classics, mathematics and the social sciences. Secondly, and most important, it awakened the great urban centers to the necessity for higher education and, either directly or indirectly, its successors became important factors in the establishment of some of the urban universities.

The first Working Men's College, founded at London in 1854 by Frederick D. Maurice, was, and is, so remarkable an institution that it deserves detailed consideration. Maurice, a clergyman, and, of course, a man of university training, had been a leader of the Christian Socialist movement. He saw in the People's College an approximation of his educational ideal, but realized that its independence of the universities was a fundamental weakness, educationally speaking. His own words, quoted in the Oxford Report (pp. 6, 7), mark an era in the history of workmen's education, for they represent the first effort to correlate this work with the existing system of higher education:

> What we wanted was, if possible, to make our teaching a bond of intercourse with the men whom we taught. How that could be we might never have found out. But the working men themselves had found it out. We heard in 1853 that the people of Sheffield had founded a People's College. The news seemed to us to mark a new era in education. We had belonged to the colleges. They had not merely given us a certain amount of indoctrination in certain subjects; they had not merely prepared us for our particular professions; they had born witness to a culture which is the highest of all culture. We had formed in those colleges

friendships which we hoped to keep wherever we went—friendships that had had an influence upon our life and character through all the years which had passed since we left them————Was it not a glorious thing, then, that working people should lay hold of this name; that they should say: "We are determined we will have colleges. Whether you set them up among us or not, we will have them, because we want to connect all our education with our social life, with our fellowship as human beings."

The Report continues:

Maurice saw that the individual student is weak, and that it is mainly in companies that uneducated men travel on the road to knowledge.————He realized what many enthusiasts for popular education forget, that the teacher divorced from a tradition of learning is apt to drop to the level of his audience and, therefore, while insisting that the college should be a college of the workpeople, he was anxious that it should keep in close touch with the older universities.

Maurice says:

The universities, we hope, will receive persons coming with certificates from our college as readily as from any other, and will grant our students degrees, provided they go through the necessary examinations. How the universities of Oxford, Cambridge, and London may be disposed to accomplish this object, we cannot, of course, foresee, but we are confident that no fee will hinder working men from having all the advantages which their fellow-countrymen possess.

The college thus founded at London attracted at once a group of notable men, mostly university-trained. John Ruskin and Charles Kingsley were among them,

and later carried back the spirit of the new institution to the older ones as teachers at Oxford and Cambridge. Such an interchange of men and ideas gave a vital impulse to this experiment in workingmen's education which made for its success. Indeed it is to be noted that cooperation between workpeople and the universities has been the sustaining factor in all of the adult education enterprises for which some claim of success can be made. The mechanics' institutes, originating with university men, succeeded until their usefulness as such had been outlived, and the university connections weakened. The "college" movement for workingmen was, as we have just seen, permanently successful only under university influence. And, finally, the association of the Workers' Educational Association with the universities has been the conspicuous educational triumph of the twentieth century. Meanwhile the educational programs of Chartism, and the original People's College movement failed of permanent growth for the same reason which forbids water to rise beyond its own level. Nor even to-day in the labor colleges has the workman succeeded in establishing a tradition of learning or a source of knowledge even faintly comparable to that of the established universities. Until thorough university education can be brought to the workpeople much more generally than is possible to-day, they cannot hope to establish their own system independently of the existing universities. This is clearly realized by the more conservative labor element, who see only in such affiliation the ultimate solution of their problem.

The modern labor college of the twentieth century, as it exists in London and elsewhere, is of only negative value to our subject, since it represents a revolt on

the part of the more radical labor element against the alleged university "domination" of workpeople's education. Avoiding every semblance of connection with the established institutions, its only association with the subject here treated lies in the effect which this revolt has had, and may have, upon the efforts of other organizations of workpeople, specifically the Workers' Educational Association, to cooperate with the universities. The discussion of this matter may be deferred to another chapter.

CHAPTER IV

The Period of University Extension

As the century approached the end of its third quarter, the forces, operative since its beginning, had well prepared the way for the remarkable development in urban higher education which was to mark its final period. In the great cities earlier foundations coalesced to form new universities and the university extension movement was born. But the growth of the modern city itself is perhaps the most remarkable sign of the new age. Engineering science had improved transportation to a point where distance ceased to be a barrier. The telegraph and, later, the telephone, made possible quick intercommunication at will. The result was twofold. Suburban life was developed, with its centralization of great masses of population in cities for the toil of the day. But suburban life was often expensive, not only in money, but also in time. Therefore the workmen with long hours and small pay crowded into the immediate factory districts and the middle classes moved into the suburbs. An increasing scale of production led to a standardization of processes and the older craftsman, who took pride in the complete production of a finished article, was replaced by the factory operative, tending a machine or repeating day after day the same single operation. With the joy of creative workmanship lost, the last source of mental satisfaction disappeared from the life of the workman. It was but natural that he should turn to existing institutions

of learning for help and should lend his influence to the founding of new ones.

The attitude of the older universities up to this time had been passive, and their participation in the earlier movements largely unofficial. Individuals of academic rank like Anderson and Birkbeck had found it necessary to create new institutions for the vocational instruction of workmen. Appeal to the older universities for help and official recognition was probably not even dreamed of in that day. The adult school movement flourished under religious auspices and offered little in earlier times for purely mental improvement. The People's College preferred to go its course alone, and the earlier workingmen's colleges sought no affiliation with the established institutions for higher education. But the very existence of these efforts, and the presence of a growing class of uneducated adult population must of necessity be evident even to the academic detachment of Oxford and Cambridge. One point must be made clear in this connection. These two universities had at that time no personal incentive to render them responsive to the needs of the people. Whereas our American system of university extension has been a spontaneous development in state institutions which owe their existence and continuance to the good will of the people, Oxford and Cambridge were private foundations, reserved by long tradition for the use of the few. Propaganda and the necessity for popular appeal were as remote from their world as the sky from the earth. This fact makes even more remarkable their eventual response to the needs of a class from which they had experienced much antagonism and from which they could hope for no material return. Since the great war this condition has been greatly modified.

Even the older universities are now in enjoyment of government subsidies, and there is no longer a single university in England which, like our own Harvard or Princeton, is supported entirely by private funds.

The foundation of university extension work in the English universities,[1] as already stated, was not a spontaneous development from within. It took place as a belated recognition of appeals from many external sources and of the personal activities of university instructors. More than a quarter of a century passed between the advancement of the first requests for education of the poor and any positive official action by the universities. In 1845 Oxford received a request from a group of public men that means might be provided for the admission of poorer men to the university. Not until 1850 apparently was the definite suggestion made there that the universities extend their education beyond their own walls.[2] At Cambridge a few years later Lord Arthur Hervey outlined a series of suggestions almost prophetic of the work which was later undertaken by that university.[3]

The father of university extension in England was James Stuart, a young Scotchman who had won a fellowship at Trinity College, Cambridge. As a former student at St. Andrews, Stuart had been a witness of

[1] For much of the material on this subject the writer wishes to express his indebtedness to the work of H. J. Mackinder and Sir Michael Sadler, "University Extension," and especially to the history of "University Extension" by W. H. Draper, M.A., Master of the Temple, Cambridge University Press, 1923, from which he has drawn largely; also to the ever-useful Final Report of the Adult Education Committee, already cited.

[2] "Suggestions for the Extension of the University submitted to the Revd. the Vice-chancellor by Wm. Sewell, B.D."

[3] "A Suggestion for Supplying the Literary, Scientific, and Mechanics' Institutes of Great Britain and Ireland with Lectures from the Universities."

the freer dissemination of knowledge to non-academic circles on the part of professors in that more democratic atmosphere. In his own words, his ambition while at Cambridge was "to establish a sort of peripatetic university, the professors of which would circulate among the big towns, and thus give a wider opportunity for receiving such teaching." The idea was later proved unsound, in that it contemplated the establishment of a new independent institution—a development which those to be served were financially unwilling or unable to support. However, the experiment served to point the way in the right direction. To Stuart himself was given the privilege of forming the first (unofficial) extension class. In 1867 the North of England Council for promoting the Higher Education of Women invited him to deliver to them a series of lectures. After considerable discussion it was agreed that he should give eight lectures apiece in four different towns on the subject of astronomy. For this he received £200. In the same year Stuart was invited to lecture before 1,500 employees of the railway works at Crewe, as one of the first features of the new Mechanics' Institute of that city. A little later he delivered the same lectures on astronomy to the Equitable Pioneers Cooperative Society at Rochdale. Thus two already existing institutions, the Mechanics' Institute and the Cooperative Society, furnished opportunities for the first development of the university extension plan, before this had even been officially sanctioned by the universities. Later the Cooperators were to make another valuable contribution to extension education in the person of Albert Mansbridge, the founder of the Workers' Educational Association.

James Stuart was now face to face with the problem of how best to serve and organize the growing demand for lectures by university professors, the establishment of a new institution for that purpose having been attempted in vain. Gradually he came to the belief that an appeal should be made to existing older universities to adopt the new work as an official part of their program. Just how revolutionary such a proposition must have seemed in those days it is now hard to realize. Nothing of the sort had ever been done before in England. There was no academic precedent or example for the undertaking. But the pressure on the universities had been growing for years, and, largely through the efforts of the diplomatic Stuart, it was now emphasized by petitions from various urban centers where Stuart's work had been done, among them Crewe, Rochdale, Leeds, Birmingham and Nottingham. An impression was made upon Cambridge by the number and sincerity of the requests received and, as a result, a university syndicate, or committee, was appointed, with Stuart as secretary, to study the situation and make recommendations. The syndicate soon reported favorably and recommended that the university send lecturers to certain urban centers. In October, 1873, the first official university extension lectures were given in Nottingham, Derby and Leicester. Among the lecturers was Mr. R. G. Moulton, who was later active in pioneer work in university extension in the United States at the University of Chicago. Thus the new plan was conceived and brought into existence. Imperfect as it has proved itself to be in many ways, it is historically of immense value, since it represents the first break in the wall of academic tradition and conservatism as a result of the attack of modern urban life

upon the universities. When the breach was once made, capitulation soon followed in all quarters. The London Society for the Extension of University Teaching was founded in 1876, and taken over by the University of London in 1900. Oxford established extension courses in 1878, and since that time extension work has become a regularly recognized part of the work of every English university.

Originally extension work was carried on in the form of popular lectures, without the assumption of any responsibility by the student. But from the discussions which inevitably took place informally between lecturer and audience, there grew the present custom of dividing the time between lecture and class-room work, the latter being optional with the student. Thus the courses were meant to serve not only those who wished information and educational stimulation without effort on their own part, but also those who desired serious study. The difficulties of the early days are amusingly described by Stuart himself: [4]

I had circulated early in the autumn a letter amongst those intending to attend the lectures, suggesting several suitable books to be read and stating that an opportunity would be given after the lecture for questions. But I found that a considerable amount of excitement prevailed on the impropriety of a number of young ladies asking questions of, or being questioned by, a young man—so elementary were the ideas at that time. I solved the difficulty by bringing to the first lecture three or four questions in print, which I distributed with the statement that if answers were sent to me by post, two clear days before the next lecture, I would then return them corrected. Thus all the dangers attaching to personal intercourse would be avoided. I expected

[4] Quoted by W. H. Draper, *op. cit.*, p. 11.

twenty or thirty answers, but from the four centers, which consisted of about six hundred pupils, I got about three hundred answers.————This was the origin of the questions which have since accompanied all university extension lectures.

A remarkable feature of university extension work is the fact that in several cities colleges arose devoted to this purpose. Several of these later were developed into universities. Thus university extension shares with the mechanics' institutes and the workmen's colleges the honor of playing an important rôle in the rise of the English urban university, a subject treated elsewhere in detail. But it was not only in urban centers that extension lectures flourished. Wherever labor was concentrated, a favorable field was found. Thus much enthusiasm was manifested by the miners in north Durham and elsewhere for lectures of this type. Considered, however, in the light of more than fifty years of existence, the merits of university extension work must be sought elsewhere than in its service to the working people. It is not difficult to analyze the reasons for this.

1. The work was primarily conceived as an extension of the university's activities to all who might desire them. Basing their hopes on the material already at hand, the founders had in mind (a) ladies interested in self-advancement (as, for example, the North of England Council for promoting Higher Education among Women), (b) the middle classes, (c) persons of leisure, (d) workpeople. The interests of groups so varied must naturally run in different channels and this was a serious hindrance to the establishment of a logical and continuous program of education for any one of the classes concerned.

2. At first neither the public authorities nor the university helped bear the expense, the whole cost falling on the students, or having to be met by local subscription.[5] As a result a very large audience indeed, usually several hundred people, was required to make the course self-supporting, and to pay the lecturer his traveling expenses and fee. Such numbers worked against the possibility of serious class study. The subjects of the lectures had to be selected not only on the basis of educational value but particularly for their popular appeal, so that the policy was more often dictated by financial consideration than by sound educational judgment. Systematic presentation of successive related subjects was of course impossible.[6]

3. The status of university extension lectures appears to have been a somewhat doubtful one in the earlier years. The Report (p. 39) emphasizes the necessity of recognizing the lecturer as a university teacher and recommends that he be closely connected with teaching in the university, as well as outside.

4. The students had but little official voice in determining the subject, content and method of the work offered. For workpeople this was a serious defect and is undoubtedly the reason for their gradual dissociation from university extension work. As a matter of fact they were primarily interested in economic and social studies bearing upon the improvement of their own condition and were disappointed that but few opportunities for such study were offered.

Much of what has just been said is applicable to the extension work of the nineteenth rather than of the

[5] Oxford Report, p. 36.

[6] Principal A. E. Morgan of University College, Hull, informs the author that attempts at correlation and continuity of courses have been made in a few centers.

twentieth century. In later years public support has been gained for these classes, and valuable affiliations have been made with other efforts to educate the workpeople, as, for example, the Tutorial Classes. However, there can be no doubt that the great success of the extension movement as established by the universities themselves has consisted in popularizing the universities with the English people as a whole rather than in offering a systematic plan of study to any particular class.

Particularly valuable in establishing an actual contact have been the summer meetings. Draper[7] quotes in this connection an interesting passage from R. D. Roberts, who describes in his *Eighteen Years of University Extension* (1894) the eagerness of the workpeople to gain some of the advantages of actual residence at Cambridge:

> In the summer of 1884, two miners, students at centers in Northumberland, were spending three days at Cambridge, on a visit to one of the lecturers. As the visitors were conducted by their host through the beautiful library of Trinity College, and the spell of its beauty was upon them—"Oh! that it were possible," said one, "for some of our students to come up for a short time to work in Cambridge and see all this for themselves." The idea laid hold of the party. Why should it not be done? They were presently at tea in Professor Stuart's rooms. The subject which filled their minds was soon mentioned and was discussed in detail by the company gathered there. It was agreed that small scholarships of ten pounds would suffice to defray the whole expense of a month's residence at Cambridge and cover traveling expenses. Two days later a letter came from Miss Gladstone, who had been present, offering on behalf of her father a scholarship of ten pounds to enable a student from

[7] *Op. cit.*, p. 46.

the mining district to spend a month during the summer at Cambridge. This offer was joyfully accepted. Much enthusiasm was evoked and three other scholarships of equal amount were subscribed on Tyneside to take four students, two men and two women, to Cambridge.————Two years later the experiment was repeated, and finally in 1890 the Syndicate determined to incorporate the plan into the University Extension System. The number of students assembled in that year was forty-one; and the intention of the Syndicate was to afford students the opportunity of supplementing the theoretical work done at the centres by practical teaching in the laboratories and museums.

Meanwhile a similar move had been initiated and a large summer meeting held at Oxford in 1888. The idea for this seems to have come partly from Cambridge and partly from the Chatauqua movement then gaining headway in America. From that time on the summer meeting, later also brought into connection with the Tutorial Class system, has been a valuable means for actual association of non-academic persons with university conditions. At present [8] they are carried on in ten centers: Bangor, Bristol, Cambridge, Chester (under University of Liverpool), East Midland (at Stoke Rochford, under the University College of Nottingham), London, Oxford, Reading (under Oxford), Malvern (under the University of Birmingham), Ambleside (for Yorkshire students under University Joint Committees of Durham, Leeds and Sheffield).

Looking back upon more than fifty years of university extension, one must pause to admire the great work accomplished. While critics have charged the movement with a certain spirit of dilettantism and a

[8] The number of these schools and their locations may vary from year to year.

lack of constructive plan and serious purpose, there can be no question that it has done much to give the English people an insight into their own universities and a sympathy with their purposes which was entirely lacking in earlier times. But most important of all, it has succeeded in promulgating to an ever increasing number of people the democratic conception of higher education as the privilege of the nation rather than of the upper classes or the wealthy alone. If the practical results are slow of attainment this must be laid to the door of native English conservatism in the acceptance of innovation and to the paralyzing effect of a centuries-old system of class distinction. Naturally, too, the poor economic condition of large numbers of the people has been an effective deterrent to a more rapid diffusion of opportunity for academic study. A noteworthy by-product, however, is to be seen in the increased attention given to the necessity for providing more generally available secondary education. In the cities especially, from which the original demand upon the universities came, the results of university extension are especially noticeable in the establishment of new colleges and even universities to meet the people's needs.

It does not lie within the scope of our subject to give detailed consideration to certain other forms of university extension which flourished during the period, but which are more remotely connected with the teaching life of the universities. Most of these attempts to ameliorate the condition of the poor are of a sociological rather than of a purely educational nature. Thus Toynbee Hall was established in London during the early eighties by a group of Oxford men led by Samuel Barnett, vicar of St. Jude's in White Chapel. It was

in effect a university settlement with a religious background, but with the additional mission of interpreting university education for the adult workman. It was named after Arnold Toynbee, who, while a member of Oxford, had devoted himself to instructing the working classes in economics and political science. Its founders looked forward to the day when it should become the nucleus for a great university for the poor of London—a hope which has never been realized.

At present the Educational Settlements Association, consisting of thirteen settlements, is offering a number of classes in university subjects for adults, and there is a friendly cooperation with some of the universities, particularly in Bristol and Liverpool. Four colleges are also affiliated to the Association: Beckenham Working Women's College, Fircroft (Birmingham), Avoncroft (Offenham) and Woodbrooke (Birmingham). All receive students for certain curricula. Most of the settlements are also in close touch with the National Adult School Union. The Residential Settlements Association in London and the Provinces is likewise engaged in adult education, and university extension, and tutorial classes are in many cases held on their premises.

An interesting effort of the period, and one more closely related to the universities, is to be found in the establishment of Ruskin College at Oxford in the year 1899 by Mr. and Mrs. Walter Vrooman, with the advice of Prof. C. A. Beard (all Americans). The college was founded "to give workingmen, and especially those likely to take a leading part in working-class movements, an education which will help them in acquiring the knowledge essential to intelligent citizenship. By this means workingmen are, in the words of the prospectus, to be assisted 'to raise, not to rise out

of, their class.' The college for this purpose takes on a general attitude of political and religious neutrality, and no inquiry is made into the opinions of prospective students." [9] While the college is not an official part of the University of Oxford, it works in close cooperation with it, and has enlisted the active interest of many Oxford faculty members. It has the distinction of being the first residential college for workingmen.

The period just considered, comprising roughly the last three decades of the nineteenth century, is, for the English universities, of the greatest importance, for it marks the development within them of a civic consciousness. To the call of the cities they furnished at first an inattentive ear. Gradually realizing, however, its growing importance, the older universities not only developed within themselves a service to meet the new need, but helped sow the seed from which sprang the newer urban institutions, destined to occupy so prominent a place in the developments of the coming century.

[9] Oxford Report, p. 8.

CHAPTER V

The Birth of the Urban Universities

The last half century, which witnessed the development of the modern city, saw also the growth of a system of education adapted to urban conditions. In both American and English cities elementary schools have been multiplied and strengthened, and secondary education has become generally available. People who live in large communities have both the desire and the ability to provide themselves with all the facilities of life *at home*. While the dweller in the village expects to travel considerable distances to obtain many of the necessities and the amenities of civilized existence, the city-dweller by concentrated purchasing power can provide himself with all of these in his own community. Gas, electricity, water, the newspapers, the theater, the schools—these are elementary needs which every large city supplies as a matter of course. From secondary to higher education is but a step to which logical reasoning can interpose no serious obstacle. That such a step *is* logical becomes evident from the fact that most large cities in the United States and England now contain a college or a university. The result has been a constant narrowing of the radius of distance from which students attend college, *i.e.*, college attendance is becoming more and more localized. A second result is that this attendance is being drawn from an ever increasing range of classes of population. While this process of

democratization has found its ultimate expression in the United States, England is more gradually awakening to the realization that university training of the properly adapted sort may become a great national asset when generally available. The expression of this realization is to be found in her newer universities. That universities of this type do actually represent a novel educational development becomes evident from the fact that no name for them has as yet been devised which has become commonly current in either country. In England the adjective "new" or "newer" is often applied to distinguish them from Oxford and Cambridge. Occasionally one hears them referred to as "provincial" universities, to designate the breadth of their field geographically. Both "civic" and "municipal" have been used as adjectives in this connection, based on location. Without desiring in any way to prescribe a term for another country than his own, the present writer has conformed to the custom, now growing more general in the United States, of referring to the universities located in cities, whether publicly or privately controlled, as "urban" universities. This expression, originally proposed by former President C. W. Dabney, of the University of Cincinnati, was officially incorporated into its title in this sense more than a decade ago by the American Association of Urban Universities, whose membership is composed of city-located institutions of every type. The name "municipal" university is thus tactily reserved for institutions supported and governed by cities.

In both America and England the urban university is a product of local conditions. It would be difficult to prove that the development in either country has been influenced by that of the other. While our Ameri-

can system of higher education[1] originally borrowed much from Oxford and Cambridge, the urban university in America represents rather a departure from earlier custom than a continuation. The English urban institution has naturally leaned heavily on its older brothers in so far as outward form is concerned, but the force which has guided its inner development has been the force of its own city as expressed in its needs and requirements. In this respect each country has traveled its course without much knowledge of what was happening in the other. Therefore the similarity of results obtained is doubly surprising and can lead only to the conclusion that the same solution reached under such difficult conditions must be justifiable and correct. Briefly stated, the distinguishing elements of an urban university (English or American) are:

1. Departure from the traditional curriculum to include fields of knowledge useful to the urban community.
2. Equalization of opportunity by free tuition, low cost of tuition, or by provision of scholarships.
3. Financial support by the general public, either in the form of exemption from taxation or by direct grants.
4. Encouragement of private gifts, particularly for purposes specifically useful to the community.
5. Cooperation of science with industry and all other useful manifestations of urban life.
6. Extension of educational facilities to the adult population.

[1] Throughout this work the term "higher education" is used in the American sense, referring to college and university education alone, rather than in the English meaning, which includes secondary education.

7. Maintenance, in spite of departure from academic tradition, of standards of the highest type.

It is the purpose of these chapters to describe the inception and growth of the urban university idea in England and to show how these institutions, developing under conditions peculiar to their own surroundings and without reference to the same movement in any other country, have obtained results approximately identical with those commonly found in the urban universities of the United States.

The urban university period in England may be reckoned as beginning with the Charter of 1880, by which the Victoria University was founded at Manchester, on the basis of Owens College. Subsequently University College of Liverpool and Yorkshire College of Leeds were admitted. This federalized university continued to exist as such until local pride caused Liverpool to seek the establishment of her own university. A new charter was issued to Manchester in 1903, "reconstituting the university under the name of the Victoria University of Manchester and freeing it from liability to admit or remain in association with any other college than Owens." [2] It must not be inferred that no urban university work was carried on before 1880. As a matter of fact the movements, which later led to the establishment of institutions of this type, were already active in most of the cities concerned in the form of uncorrelated separate institutions. But the first conscious attempt to assemble the elements of such an institution under the name "university" is represented by the foundation of Victoria, which was

[2] "The Yearbook of the Universities of the Empire" (p. 180), edited by W. H. Dawson for the Universities Bureau of the British Empire. G. Bell and Sons, Ltd., London, 1925.

intended to become the university of the whole north country. The plan was basically wrong, as was proved by the result. It failed to reckon with the factor of local pride, a potent element in building public institutions of any sort. While Yorkshire College of Leeds remained loyal even during the period of secession, the physical difficulties of administration and intercourse, and the diversity of local interests proved too great a handicap for the Victoria University. Meanwhile Birmingham, in 1900, had established its own university and this, together with the dissolution of the Victoria University, established for all time the principle of the local urban institution, bearing the name of the city of its location. To be sure its field of service and support extends in all cases far beyond city boundaries and often includes considerable sections of the country, but in so far as location is concerned the English urban university of to-day is essentially linked to its own individual city.

Two other "newer" universities were already in existence when the Victoria University was founded in 1880, but neither had at that time assumed the distinguishing marks of the modern urban institution. Durham, the eldest of the "new" group, was founded in 1832 as a "handmaiden of the Church of England," with a course confined to theological and classical training. A university college of medicine was added in 1870 and Armstrong College (covering agriculture, economics, education, classics, science, engineering and certain liberal subjects) assumed its present name in 1904. The two newer colleges are located at Newcastle-upon-Tyne, while the original foundation occupies the ancient castle in close connection with the cathedral at Durham. While this arrangement may at first glance

seem to be open to the same difficulties which destroyed the old Victoria University, the two cases are in reality quite unlike. There cannot possibly arise between the great city of Newcastle and the little town of Durham any such rivalry as existed between Manchester and Liverpool. In fact, the arrangement seems to be a most fortunate one, giving to the greater city the location of the more practical phases of modern education, but lending to the whole enterprise the academic prestige which clusters about Durham and its cathedral university. Four years after the foundation of Durham, the University of London was constituted by Royal Charter (1836), "as a body empowered to grant degrees to students of approved institutions after examination and, until 1900, its work was confined to the examination of students." [3] Thus, while London was really the greatest English center of individual higher institutions of the urban type, these were not incorporated into a university unit for the purposes of giving instruction, until 1900.

If the whole of the nineteenth century may be regarded as a time of preparation for the coming of the urban universities, the first decade of the twentieth century represents the great period of their arrival. Following the establishment of Birmingham in 1900 came, as already stated, the dissolution of the Victoria University and the reconstitution of its units into separate universities at Manchester, Liverpool and Leeds. Before the end of the decade Sheffield and Bristol had been added and quite recently Reading, making, with London and Durham, a total of nine institutions, as follows:

[3] Yearbook (*op. cit.*), p. 101.

Durham, 1832
[London, 1836]
[Victoria, 1880 (including temporarily Manchester, Liverpool and Leeds)]
London, 1900 (reconstituted)
Birmingham, 1900
Manchester, 1903
Liverpool, 1903
Leeds, 1904
Sheffield, 1905
Bristol, 1909
Reading, 1926

In addition to these universities, England has several university colleges. These colleges are single institutions, carrying on work of a university grade and often of a considerably diversified character. They are, so to speak, universities in embryo, but having not yet been chartered as universities, they may not confer the degree, a privilege reserved in England for the universities alone. Students from these colleges may later attend a university and there receive a degree, or they may take the examinations of the University of London for the external degree. The colleges in spirit are largely akin to the urban universities. This is especially true of Nottingham where adult education is receiving particular attention. The following list gives the dates of their incorporation as university colleges. In some cases an existence as an institute or a non-university college has preceded:

Nottingham, 1881
Southampton, 1902
Exeter,[4] 1922

[4] Although Exeter was not incorporated till 1922, it existed for all intents and purposes as a University College, preparing for London External Degrees, from about 1903.

In the early part of the present decade a college at Leicester was formed and, although it did not assume the title of University College in its instrument of incorporation, it functions as such in a small way. A University College has also recently been formed at Hull. This is perhaps a unique case of a foundation not based on a previous institution of any kind, but depending on a large donation by a single donor, the Rt. Hon. T. R. Ferens has given the sum of 250,000 pounds, and the City of Hull is giving 150,000 pounds for buildings and will make a grant for maintenance.

In preceding chapters an attempt has been made to outline some of the most important movements for adult education during the nineteenth century. This was done partly for the purpose of illustrating the remarkable persistence of the English working classes in seeking knowledge, partly to illustrate the effect of the massing of population on the older universities, and finally to pave the way for a clearer comprehension of how the new urban universities came into existence. Many of the earlier efforts toward adult education seem to have expired without leaving any appreciable trace of their activities. But to assert that this actually was the case, would be to proceed upon the basis of insufficient data. Just how much knowledge and inspiration some of the later successes drew from the example of earlier attempts, no one can with certainty tell. Thus it is possible to suppose that Chartism has had its effect upon the modern labor colleges, and that Christian Socialism may not have been unknown to the founders of modern adult education methods, and of the social settlements.

It would be unprofitable for our purpose to enter too

far into the realm of conjecture in trying to trace these relationships. But of two things we may be certain: The early efforts at establishing technical vocational training as represented by the mechanics' institutes, and the adult extension movement undertaken by the older universities, have both been powerful factors in helping establish the English urban university system. In few cases, however, can the matter be so simply disposed of as to say that a particular institution sprang from but a single source. In most instances the urban university represents an agglomeration of separate institutions of various origins. Thus it becomes a complicated matter to trace all the threads of any particular university, and such an effort would serve to confuse rather than to enlighten. It is not difficult however to proceed from the basis of the original movement and to indicate those institutions in which its influence has been apparent.

The mechanics institutes have left definite traces upon several of the nine universities. Most conspicuous is the case of the Victoria University of Manchester. Originally this institution was founded upon the basis of Owens College. In 1846 John Owens, a prominent merchant of the city, left in his will nearly 100,000 pounds to found a college, which was later named in his honor. "He provided that instruction should be 'in such branches of learning and science as are usually taught in the English universities.' He laid down the principle that there should be no theological tests for either teachers or students, and that nothing must 'be introduced in the matter of or mode of education in reference to any religious or theological subject which shall be reasonably offensive to the conscience of any

student.' " [5] This bequest is especially interesting, not only because it is the first given to establish university training in the cities, independent of the old universities, but because it represents the new industrial motive in education and specifies freedom from religious test. Subsequently a college of medicine was added and, in 1905, the splendid Manchester Municipal School of Technology, the direct descendant of the original Mechanics' Institute, founded in Manchester in 1824 was affiliated to the University. In Liverpool there seems to be little, if any, reflection in the present university of the old Mechanics' Institute established in that city in 1823, although the Athenaeum, an arts institution, founded somewhat earlier (1799), is at least a spiritual progenitor. It is a matter of interest to notice that in these two cities, so closely connected by location and by earlier academic ties, the Mechanics' Institute in one case developed into a great modern technical school of university grade, and in the other passed out of existence without leaving a trace.

At Birmingham the Midland Institute, incorporated in 1864, had an undoubted influence upon the formation of the Mason College, founded by Sir Josiah Mason in 1880, and later the nucleus of the university. Developing the lines of urban education as a separate institution, the Midland Institute is now affiliated with the university. The University of Sheffield, although not founded on the basis of a mechanics' institute, owes much to the old Sheffield Mechanics Institute, since it helped furnish the incentive which

[5] Maclean, "Studies in Higher Education" (*op. cit.*) (p. 112). The writer wishes to acknowledge his indebtedness to this excellent pioneer work for much of the information contained in this chapter.

later led to the opening of the technical branch of Firth College, the nucleus of the university. In Bristol another type of old technical foundation, the Merchant Venturers' College, has become the basis of the Faculty of Engineering. In London, Birkbeck College, founded in 1823 by Dr. George Birkbeck, the father of the mechanics' institute movement, is now a school of the University of London.

University extension has played an even greater rôle in university building than the mechanics' institutes. At least its influence dates from a later period and is, therefore, easier to trace. Here we see the older universities taking an active part in the establishment of the newer ones. This is, however, no less truly the result of a purely urban influence, since the extension activities of Cambridge and Oxford were called into being largely by the demand of the cities. The unusual element lies in the fact that the urban need was not, and could not be, supplied by the cities themselves, but must of necessity be indirectly met by appeal to the existing universities. While this had not been necessary in the development of technical education, it was but natural to regard the old universities as the source of that liberal training which made up so large a part of the extension movement.

The first independent university grade enterprise to be initiated on the basis of extension work was in Nottingham. In 1874 a private gift of 10,000 pounds provided for the endowment of an institution in which the extension work already initiated by Cambridge could be carried on, with the provision that the city should erect suitable buildings. Thus came into existence the University College of Nottingham, opened in 1881. At Sheffield the Cambridge extension lectures

began in 1875 and had soon attracted so much favorable notice that the mayor of the city himself donated a building for the work. Thus Firth College came into existence in 1879 and in 1897 was chartered as a university college, the nucleus of the present University of Sheffield. The same wave of enthusiasm for the Cambridge lectures engulfed Liverpool and resulted in appeals for a great popular subscription. The sum thus secured enabled Liverpool to establish University College, chartered in 1881, and now the basis of the University of Liverpool. It is worthy of note that in Liverpool as in Sheffield, the mayor was the active figure in promoting the establishment of the new institution, showing as it does the truly urban, almost officially municipal character of the early efforts. At Exeter, also, the University College sprang mainly from the Cambridge Extension Classes.

As against the four institutions founded under Cambridge influence, Oxford has but one to her credit. This is doubtless due to the fact that Cambridge, as the instigator of the movement, had prior access to the more promising centers. It may also be in part accounted for by the personal enthusiasm of James Stuart, the father of the extension movement at Cambridge and in England. Oxford, however, has no cause to be ashamed of her child, the new University of Reading. In 1882 the Oxford Extension Courses were opened in that city. Seven years later the University Extension College was opened and in 1902 it was chartered as a university college. To-day, having just become a university, it bears the stamp of its progenitor much more clearly than do any of the descendants of Cambridge.

Several urban universities have been powerfully in-

fluenced in their origin and development by medical schools. Thus the Leeds School of Medicine, founded in 1831, and amalgamated with Yorkshire College in 1884, is the oldest element of the University of Leeds. At Liverpool the Medical School of the Royal Infirmary, established in 1834, "became the primal germ of the university." [6] The University of Durham took its first important step in secular education by its association in 1852 and final incorporation in 1870 of the Durham College of Medicine (founded in 1832, the same year as the university itself). Bristol also associated with its University College in 1893, a medical college, of long standing. This University College became the University of Bristol in 1909.

Only London and Durham, the two oldest of the urban universities, have had their origin in arts or theological institutions. At London it was University College (nonconformist) and Kings College (Church of England) which formed the initial combination. At Durham the basis was of the university college type, under the influence of the older universities and the Church of England. Perhaps this very contrast with the circumstances under which the other urban institutions were founded will best illustrate the development of the nineteenth century.

[6] Maclean, *op. cit.*, p. 119.

CHAPTER VI

The Service of the Urban Universities

The end of the first decade of the present century found the English urban universities fully constituted and diligent in service. Their importance and usefulness had made a deep impression on the public mind. Great masses of the middle-class population, to whom "university" had been but a name, now began to look forward to the possibility of higher education for their sons and daughters. Even the poorest workpeople found opportunity to acquire knowledge through the recently instituted Tutorial Classes or in Extension Lectures. It is but natural enough that the great majority of the English people became firm supporters of the new type of university. A certain note of dissent was audible, to be sure, among the more radical sections of the labor movement, who distrusted all universities, and also among the more conservative of the older university element who believed that real education lay only in the Humanities. There was also, as is ever the case regarding public institutions, a difference of opinion regarding the propriety of expending public funds for higher training. But no one doubted that these new universities had come to stay, and no one who studied their work with an unprejudiced eye could fail to see the potential benefit to city and nation which lay within their power to achieve.

One of the major tests of success for an urban insti-

tution is its ability to adapt itself to local conditions and to serve local needs. Let us apply this test to the new English universities and try to draw a picture of the service rendered in each of the cities. Work in adult education, however, now carried on by all universities will not be included in this description, but will be more fully treated in another place.

Durham, the oldest of the urban institutions, in point of original foundation, may only be reckoned as belonging to this type on the basis of its more recent establishments at Newcastle-upon-Tyne. Here are located the college of Medicine and Armstrong College, with special facilities for research in engineering and hydraulics, agriculture, marine biology, etc. Diplomas are offered also in architecture, naval architecture, mining, fine arts, commerce, and, more recently, in law. The correlation with Newcastle and her coal mines, her iron and shipping industries, is apparent. However, Durham is also the university of the entire County of Durham and serves agricultural interests by general courses in agriculture, dairying and forestry. For this purpose the university controls and uses for teaching and research several county and crown estates. Recently a school for pure Science was opened at Durham.[1]

The University of London is so enormous an institution that several volumes would be required to tell in detail of its history and present activities. In a city like London practically every branch of human interest

[1] The writer desires to acknowledge his indebtedness for parts of the material in this chapter to the calendars (catalogs) of the various institutions, and to the British Empire Universities Yearbook; also to the numerous university faculty members, whom he met in his visits to the universities, and who gave information with unvarying courtesy and willingness.

is represented in some form or connection. The university's field, therefore, is the whole field of human knowledge. A distinction is still made between "internal students," duly matriculated at schools of the university and in actual residence, and "external students" who have pursued their studies elsewhere and who are admitted, without requirement of residence, to examinations for all degrees except those in medicine, mining and architecture. The external type of degree is the original one for which the university was founded in 1836. Not until 1900 was the present federation of schools established as a teaching university. Its constituent members are classified as:

I. Incorporated Institutions and University Departments
II. Associated Institutions
    a. Schools of the university
    b. Other institutions having recognized teachers

It is not possible within our present limits to describe in detail the work of these constituent units. A summary of the whole, with brief mention of some of the functions of the most important, must suffice:

I. Incorporated Institutions and University Departments

1. *University College.* Arts, Law, Science, Engineering, Medicine, Fine Arts, Librarianship, Journalism, Architecture.
2. *Kings College.* Arts, Law, Natural Science, Medical Science, Engineering, Theology, Bacteriology and Public Health.
3. *Goldsmiths' College.* Recognized by Board of Education as a Training College.
4. *The Brown Animal Sanatory Institution.*

5. *The Francis Galton Laboratory for National Eugenics.* "For the study of those agencies under social control that may improve or impair the racial qualities of future generations, either physically or mentally."
6. *The Bartlett School of Architecture.* Contains a Department of Town Planning.
7. *The Institute of Historical Research.* Serves as the University Laboratory of History, devoted to post-graduate and research work.
8. *The Commerce Degree Bureau.* To assist external Commerce students in their work.

II. Associated Institutions

a. *Schools of the University*

1. *Imperial College of Science and Technology.* One of the great engineering colleges of the world, giving the highest specialized instruction and offering facilities for advanced training and research.
2. *East London College.* Arts, Science and Engineering.
3. *Birkbeck College.* The old Mechanics' Institute, named after Dr. George Birkbeck, its founder and first president, and one of the pioneers of the first Scotch Institute in Glasgow. Arts and Science.
4. *London School of Economics and Political Science.* Includes also commerce and industry. Open day and evening, also to those not matriculated at the university.
5. *Southeastern Agricultural College, Wye.*
6. *London Day Training College.* A school of the university in Pedagogy. Schools under the London Common Council and others are used for practical instruction. Three demonstration schools are attached to the college.
7. *School of Oriental Studies.*
8. *Kings College for Women.* Household and Social Science.

9. *Bedford College for Women.* Arts and Science.
10. *Royal Holloway College for Women.* Arts and Science, 19 miles from London.
11. *Westfield College, Hampstead.* Arts (for women).
12. *Five Theological Schools.* Various denominations.
13. *Nineteen Medical Schools.* Includes certain hospitals having recognized teachers.[2]
14. *Faculty of Laws.* Recruited from the faculties of University and Kings Colleges and of the London School of Economics.

b. *Other Institutions Having Recognized Teachers*

There are twenty-eight such institutions, largely scientific, but including also schools of music and pedagogy.

The outline just presented gives a general view of the extent and scope of the University of London. It represents the greatest federalized university in the world, successful because its members are nearly all connected by the tie of location in the same city and because much local autonomy is left to the constituent units. The statutes provided that "The Senate shall be the supreme Governing and Executive Body of the University." The senate consists of the Chancellor, the Chairman of convocation[3] and 54 other members, of whom 16 are appointed by convocation and 16 by the faculties. The chancellor[4] is elected by convocation and the vice-chancellor by the senate annually from among its members.[5] The senate, while it is the highest author-

[2] The University Senate has the power to recognize as teachers of the university any members of the teaching staff of public educational institutions within a radius of 30 miles of London.

[3] The Convocation consists of graduates of the university who have attained the age of 21 years, together with members of the three standing committees of the senate.

[4] The office of chancellor is purely honorary.

[5] General Information for Internal Students, The University of London Press, Ltd., London, 1925.

ity, deals principally with questions affecting the university policy as a whole. It has three standing committees: (1) On Internal Work of the University; (2) on External Students; and (3) on the Extension of University Teaching, and the Examination and Inspection of Secondary Schools.

Perhaps no other urban institution in the world has wielded so powerful an influence upon its city and upon its nation as has the University of London. The policy of giving "external" examinations has drawn to it aspirants for its degrees from all parts of the British Empire. With more than a thousand teachers and nearly 10,000 registered internal students it ranks among the largest of the world's universities. Even more imposing is the table on the opposite page, which shows the total numbers of students who have taken degrees since the foundation of the University in 1836. Degrees in Household and Social Science, Estate Management, and Commerce have only recently been granted.

The year 1900, at the threshold of the new century, marked not only the reconstitution of the University of London, but also the incorporation by Royal Charter of the University of Birmingham. Unlike the older Victoria University, Birmingham represents an institution founded by citizens to serve their own community. While it has sometimes been called the University of the Midlands and does actually exercise a wide sphere of influence,[6] yet it is primarily Birmingham's own institution, owing its existence to two Birmingham citizens, Sir Josiah Mason, the founder

[6] Its Court of Governors includes, in addition to members of the Birmingham City Council, representatives of many different county, city and borough councils, and education committees.

Total Graduates, Etc., to 31st December, 1924

Faculty	Degree of Diploma	Men	Women	Total
Theology	Bachelor of Divinity (B.D.)	585	12	597
	Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.)	5	0	5
	Doctor of Divinity (D.D.)	27	0	27
Arts	Bachelor of Arts (B.A.)	8,844	6,844	15,688
	Master of Arts (M.A.)	1,123	439	1,562
	Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.)	24	13	37
	Doctor of Literature (D.Lit.)	77	14	91
	Teacher's Diploma	565	1,493	2,058
Laws	Bachelor of Laws (LL.B.)	1,420	19	1,439
	Doctor of Laws (LL.D.)	138	2	140
Music	Bachelor of Music (B.Mus.)	60	3	63
	Doctor of Music (D.Mus.)	18	0	18
Medicine	Bachelor of Medicine and Bachelor of Surgery (M.B., B.S.)	5,075	879	5,954
	Doctor of Medicine (M.D.)	1,782	152	1,934
	Master of Surgery (M.S.)	197	10	207
Science	Bachelor of Science (B.Sc.)	8,258	2,296	10,554
	Bachelor of Science (Horticulture) (B.Sc.)	5	16	21
	Bachelor of Science (Agriculture) (B.Sc.)	111	5	116
	Bachelor of Science (Veterinary Science) (B.Sc.)	20	0	20
	Bachelor of Science (Household and Social Science) (B.Sc.)	0	47	47
	Bachelor of Science (Estate Management) (B.Sc.)	6	0	6
	Bachelor of Science by Research (B.Sc.)	24	3	27
	Master of Science (M.Sc.)	307	80	387
	Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.)	134	21	155
	Doctor of Science (D.Sc.)	459	59	518
Engineering	Bachelor of Science (B.Sc.)	2,780	3	2,783
	Bachelor of Science (Mining) (B.Sc.) and (Metallurgy) (B.Sc.)	123	0	123
	Master of Science (M.Sc.)	23	0	23
	Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.)	5	0	5
	Doctor of Science (D.Sc.)	27	0	27
Economics	Bachelor of Science (B.Sc.)	532	120	652
	Bachelor of Science by Research (B.Sc.)	0	1	1
	Master of Science (M.Sc.)	26	3	29
	Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.)	17	2	19
	Doctor of Science (D.Sc.)	41	10	51
	Bachelor of Commerce (B.Com.)	291	..	304
	Master of Commerce (M.Com.)	..	..	..
		33,129	12,546	45,688

of the Mason College, and Joseph Chamberlain, who helped secure its charter. Perhaps few other English cities take so much local pride in their university, or aid it so generously, as does Birmingham. The organization is a comparatively simple one, there being but four faculties; science, arts, medicine and commerce. It is significant that the faculty of science is first and oldest of the four, being based on the original gift of Sir Josiah Mason. In Birmingham's teeming activity it has found an excellent field for cooperation and now includes the following boards:

The Board of Mathematical Studies
The Board of Physical Studies
The Board of Chemical Studies
The Board of Biological Studies
The Board of Engineering Studies

Great attention has been given to the practical applications of science particularly useful to the city. The university contains the British School of Malting and Brewing, and also gives degrees or diplomas in oil engineering and refining, mining, public health and dentistry. The B.Sc. courses in mining involve practical work underground.

The usual subjects are included under the arts faculty. There is an affiliation with two theological colleges, and extensive work is given in music. The faculty of commerce includes, among others, courses in industrial administration and accounting for engineers. The Department of Education trains teachers for the primary and secondary schools, and grants are made by the board of education to students in training. Considerable practical work is required of students in the Department of Social Study, and special attention is given to the needs of trade union officials and those

who desire to engage in public administration. The university gains a very close touch with the city's industrial life, by its affiliation with the Midland Institute.

The University of Manchester presents a more complicated picture than does Birmingham. Its earlier connection with Liverpool and Leeds in the Victoria University, and its longer period of development have made possible an organization second only to London in size and variety. There are nine faculties:

Arts (including School of Architecture)
Science
Law
Medicine (including departments of dental science, pharmaceutics, bacteriology and preventive medicine and public health
Music
Commerce
Theology
Technology (provided by the Municipal College of Technology)
Education (training for work in secondary, elementary and day continuation schools, etc.)

It would be difficult to give in detail all the connections which this university has established with its community. Naturally the field of science has offered the broadest opportunity. The affiliation with the Manchester Municipal College of Technology, one of the great engineering colleges of the world, has been particularly advantageous. Founded in 1824 as a mechanics' institute, this institution is now of university rank in much of its work, although it still wisely provides vocational training in its evening courses for workingmen, touching in this latter field all the great

local industries. Perhaps no other college in England so closely resembles the American municipal university in its government and support as does the Manchester Municipal College of Technology. Transferred to the City in 1892, its buildings and most of its equipment belong to the Manchester City Council and its support comes largely from this source. Among its governing bodies the city council is first. In this respect the college has gone even farther into the realm of municipal control than have the American municipal universities, none of which is directly responsible to a city council. So remarkably is its work correlated with Manchester's industrial activities, that an outline of courses is herewith reproduced in its entirety.[7]

The work of the college includes:

Advanced study and research in various branches of science and technology.

University courses in the faculty of technology extending over three years and leading to degrees and certificates in:

- Mechanical engineering
- Electrical engineering
- Sanitary engineering
- Applied chemistry
  - (a) General chemical technology
  - (b) Chemistry of textiles (bleaching, dyeing, printing, and finishing)
  - (c) Paper manufacture
  - (d) Metallurgy and assaying
  - (e) Chemical technology of brewing
  - (f) Electro-chemistry
  - (g) Photography
  - (h) Coloring matters (higher course)

[7] Prospectus of University Courses in the Municipal College of Technology, Manchester, Session 1925-26 (p. 25), Manchester, 1925.

(i) Foodstuffs (higher course)
(j) Fuels (higher course)
Textile industries
Mining

Full-time courses extending over two years in the department of industrial administration and over three years in the building department.

Senior technical and vocational courses extending over two years.

Part-time day courses for engineers and other apprentices whose employers allow them to devote one whole day per week to study.

Part-time evening courses, involving attendance on three evenings a week for five years, which, although they cannot cover the whole ground of the University courses, afford an alternative means of acquiring that training in scientific principles and their application which is required to fit a man, if he possesses the character and personal qualities essential to a manager, to occupy effectively a position of responsibility in industrial affairs; and

Other part-time classes for advanced study and research, or in preparation for the external degrees of the University of London, or in technological or trade subjects, or in various branches of natural science, or in other subjects of which particulars are given in the latter part of the college calendar.

The University of Manchester possesses numerous valuable libraries, among them a Municipal Reference Library of 265,000 volumes. The Fielden School is organized mainly for demonstration, training and research in education. The university was a pioneer in establishing a public-health laboratory, working in close cooperation with the public authorities. The Manchester Museum is housed in the university buildings and

serves the University for teaching purposes. In fact, there is a remarkable cooperation between practically every University department and the city. Perhaps no other English university has attained such complete success in this particular.

Strange to American ideas is the inclusion of schools and faculties of theology in public universities. Yet they form a part of several of the English urban institutions. At Manchester and Birmingham their presence is especially unexpected, since the founders of both the Mason College and of Owens College declared specifically against theological teaching. In both cases this difficulty has been met by a relationship of affiliation with the theological schools, rather than by actually incorporating them into the university. In such association is evident the old theological tradition which was responsible for so much in building the earlier universities.

To outline in detail the work of each of the urban universities, particularly in definition of its service to the city, would be largely a matter of repetition. Liverpool, for instance, gives a picture not greatly unlike Manchester. There are however but five faculties:

Arts (with schools of architecture, social studies, local history and records, Russian studies; departments of civic design, commerce and education)
Science
Medicine (with schools of dental surgery, hygiene, tropical medicine and veterinary science)
Law
Engineering

The trend of work is differentiated from that of the other universities by Liverpool's location as a seaport

and its resulting relations with the other countries of the world. Thus arose its interest in foreign languages, its School of Tropical Medicine, with research laboratories also at Manaos and Sierra Leone, the courses in oceanography, tidal research, marine biology, shipping, naval architecture, etc. Like many of the other universities Liverpool carries on work in public health, commerce, civic design, practical social study and those other fields for cooperation commonly found in great cities.

True to the industrial interests which have made it a great city, Leeds has established a university, where scientific investigation plays a major part. In industrial chemistry particularly, the University of Leeds has taken the lead in useful cooperation with manufacturing interests. It is one of the three universities of the world to which the leather industry has turned for help in the solution of problems in tanning and dyeing and where, as a result, special laboratories on a large scale for research in leather have been cooperatively established.[8] The leather industries division[9] at the University has a professor, two lecturers, a demonstrator and two assistants. It receives assistance from the Skinners' Company of the City of London, and from members of the leather trades in many other places. There is an advisory committee composed of representatives of the university and of the leather manufacturing interests. In 1914 the Procter International Research Laboratory was endowed by public subscription to commemorate the services of Professor H. R. Procter to science and the leather industry.

[8] The other two are the Université de Lyon, France, and the University of Cincinnati (municipally supported) in the United States.
[9] For more detailed information, see Twenty-first Report, 1924-25, of Leeds University.

Perhaps the major cooperative activity at Leeds is in the division of textile industries, originally endowed by the Clothworkers Company of the City of London. Closely connected with this is the work in color chemistry and dyeing, also endowed by the Clothworkers Company. As a great center of the textile industry, Leeds supports this work enthusiastically. At the university more than twenty persons are engaged in instruction in textiles and dyeing. In mining also, the activities of the university have been shaped by the cooperation of industry, considerable help having been received from the Drapers' Company of the City of London, and the West Yorkshire Coal Owners' Association.

Cooperation of a similar sort is carried on in the faculty of technology with the coal, gas and fuel industries. It is noteworthy that Leeds has a faculty of science and also a faculty of technology, or applied science, comparable in part to what is called in the United States "industrial chemistry," or "chemical engineering." At Leeds however both engineering and agriculture are included under the faculty of technology. There are, in addition, faculties of art, science and medicine. In technological studies, the university believes in the admixture of practical work. In engineering a year of practical experience in factories is advised before the course is begun. Mining students receive practical instruction in mines under arrangements made with local owners. Even in commerce affiliation is made with the printing department of the Leeds Central Technical School with a view to recognition of its classes as part of the course for the degree of B. Com. This is particularly striking in view of the general lack of interest of the English universities in

the sandwich plan of engineering training originated at Glasgow, or the cooperative plan used in the United States. Unlike some of the other universities, Leeds also carries on evening courses for advanced students in technological subjects, in cooperation with the Leeds and West Riding Education Committees. While vocational evening courses of a non-university grade are quite common at several of the English universities, those of a university rank for advanced students are much rarer. Even at the great Manchester Municipal College of Technology, an institution of the highest rank, most of the evening courses are purely vocational in nature. It is this fact, as already mentioned, which differentiates English university evening classes in technological subjects from our own evening work in the United States, and which makes it so difficult in England to obtain a degree in technology by evening work alone.

In many respects the University of Leeds manifests a spirit and an activity which recall our American university conditions perhaps more nearly than those of any other English university. Quite recently a campaign was carried on for half a million pounds with a technique not unlike that to be found on the other side of the Atlantic. Having made itself a real servant of its city, the university has not hesitated to emphasize its claim to public and private support and the result has been an excellent one. Leeds draws a rather unusually large part of its income from local education authorities, *i.e.,* from various neighboring city and county councils, as well as from the Leeds City Council. For purposes of information the following analysis of its income may prove to be of interest: [10]

[10] University Pamphlet: "The Development Scheme" (p. 6), December, 1925.

	Per cent
From the Government	27
From the Local Education Authorities[11]	30
From Fees	31
From Subscriptions	5
From Endowments	6
From other sources	1

Perhaps the most comprehensive summary of the spirit and function of this wide-awake and modern university may be found in its own statement[12] of its functions:

In association with schools and local education authorities, to provide a crown to the educational system of its area.

To promote learning by offering facilities to students from every part of the world.

To train teachers to carry on the work of education in schools, colleges and universities.

To add to knowledge by research and by the publication of its results.

By research and advice and the education of men and women, to help commerce and industry and the professions.

To aid the progress of civilization by sending out from the University men and women who have acquired ideals of conduct and human relationships through learning and culture and through a common life in which all types and all nationalities rub shoulders in classrooms, corridors and hostels and on the playing fields.

By varied forms of adult education to help those who have not had opportunities for pursuing their studies in the University itself.

[11] The contribution of the Leeds City Council is the product of a penny rate (tax), and amounted in 1924-25 to £11,387. In addition the council pays the fees of its scholars and free students.

[12] A short account of the Growth of the University of Leeds (p. 25), Pamphlet of the University, 1924.

To provide means, through lectures and recitals, of conveying to the public the results of the study of literature, science, art and music.

The University of Sheffield, like the University of Leeds, is the product of its city and its industrial community. Brought into being as a university by the possibility of the establishment of a University of Yorkshire, centering in Leeds, Sheffield has a particularly strong appeal to the inhabitants of its enormous urban area, which centers in the city itself and extends considerable distances in all directions. The chief industries revolve around the manufacture of steel, electroplate and glass and it is the center of extensive coal mining operations. It is not therefore surprising to find the study of metallurgy raised to the dignity of a separate faculty. The six faculties are: arts, pure science, medicine, law, engineering, and metallurgy. In addition to the customary lines of cooperation, the University of Sheffield specializes in mining and in fuel and glass technology, while its new research laboratory in metallurgy makes it one of the chief centers for the study of that science. In all these departments close connection is maintained with the manufacturing interests, and many applications from industry are dealt with annually. The grant from the City Council is unusually large, amounting in 1924-25 to nearly £25,000. In the same period the government gave over £38,000 and the West Riding County Council nearly £10,000. Other public grants were small, but the sum of £4,418 was received from the South Yorkshire Coal Trade Association.[13]

Bristol established its university in 1909, as the uni-

[13] Annual Reports, University of Sheffield, for the Session 1924-25, pp. 94-95.

versity of the entire west country.[14] Hence its emphasis on agriculture. There are four faculties: Arts, Science, Medicine, and Engineering. Much attention is given to chemistry, especially in its various practical applications to agriculture, pathology, medicine, etc. Having no great specialized urban industries to serve, its cooperative efforts are limited largely to those usually found at institutions of this type. Being more remote than its sister universities from the larger centers of population, it has felt the urban influence less directly than have the universities of the midlands. It is, however, awake to every opportunity for service and belongs entirely to the new university movement. What this movement may mean eventually to the English nation was eloquently summed up by Lord Haldane in his famous speech at his installation as Chancellor of the University of Bristol: [15]

> The awakening has come to the old universities late. They are now doing very fine work, but they ought to have been able to develop it much sooner.—If the new English universities can keep their level high, they may be able to develop a certain advantage over the older English universities.—It is to the production by the civic university of the quality of alertness in the average as well as in the exceptional student that I look with hope for the future.—I can see no limit to what may be the development of the civic university within the next hundred years. I look to its becoming the dominant and shaping power in our system of national education.

[14] However, Devon and Cornwall are developing their own University College at Exeter, with a branch at Plymouth.

[15] Quoted by Maclean (*op. cit.*, p. 129) from "The Civic University," reprint, 1913, pp. 15-16.

CHAPTER VII

University Adult Education in the Twentieth Century

The response of the universities to the call for extension classes was their greatest contribution to the democratization of higher education during the nineteenth century. It was followed during the first decade of the twentieth by an even more significant development, namely, their affiliation with the Workers' Educational Association in the institution of the system of tutorial classes. As has already been shown, most of the movements for adult education during the century just passed had already run their course and disappeared. Few had left any lasting traces upon the universities. The fervor for vocational training which burned so brightly a century ago in the Mechanics Institute was largely abated. Trade unionism regarded it askance as bringing more benefit to the employer than to the employed. The ideal of the working classes had been finally defined in terms of an education which should benefit them as a class rather than as individuals. This result they believed they might best attain by the study of the liberal, non-vocational subjects, but particularly of the economic and political sciences. The founding of Ruskin college at Oxford at the turn of the century drew renewed attention to the possibilities which lay within the universities, possibilities which, it was generally felt, the extension movement had by no means

exhausted. As a matter of fact, the extension classes had assumed a somewhat middle-class complexion which was repugnant to the organized-labor movement. It was generally felt in labor circles that the workmen themselves should be in charge of their own educational program, but for a long time no one knew exactly how it might be possible to accomplish this and at the same time enlist the help of the universities. Constructive thinking, so often hitherto sorely missed in labor circles, was now needed more than ever and, as sometimes happens in great need, the emergency produced the man.

Albert Mansbridge, the founder of the Workers' Educational Association, was the son of workpeople and was brought up, as he himself has said, "in a cooperative and trade-union atmosphere." As a youth he was a student in university extension classes, and his early manhood was spent in the service of the cooperative movement. As a student and later as a teacher in London he had studied the earlier attempts to educate the working people and had analyzed them thoroughly. He doubtless saw that the weakness of the original people's college had been its unwillingness to draw upon the universities for help, and he sympathized with the philosophy of Maurice, the founder of the Workingmen's College, who was the first to advocate the doctrine that labor must rely upon some sort of connection with the universities for its educational plan. While Maurice, working in a less responsive age and before university extension had paved the way, was content with an unofficial university connection through individuals, Mansbridge saw that the time had come for a more formal relation between labor and the highest seats of learning. The growing political power of the

working classes had also doubtless contributed its share to pave the way for a respectful consideration of the plan which Mansbridge and his fellow workers gradually evolved.[1]

Much, however, lay in the man himself. Maintaining, as he always did, a complete loyalty to the class from which he had sprung, he did not allow this feeling to blind him to the advantages which might accrue to Labor from friendly association with learning, aristocratic though learning's traditions had been. Like all great organizers he knew how to give and to take; he was cooperative in the best sense of the term. But there was in his effort something better than the mere striving to promote material advancement. He was a crusader in a new HolyWar, an adventure, as he himself calls it, and this adventure was to him as high and lofty an enterprise as ever attracted Christian knights to the rescue of the Holy Sepulchre. His own words best illustrate his faith:

> The equipment of those who would adventure is a belief in the power of everyone to perform his or her true service. The community is like a living mosaic. It has a pattern, and the impulse and motion of men is towards their rightful place in it. Ignorance, disease and sin, the trinity of anti-social forces, have distorted the pattern, but there is no rest for the hindered man. All men and women, except when under the influence of a dominating force, such as gambling, drink or the like, are ready and willing to respond to an educational message; they all want to think of, to look at,

[1] The original sources for a history of the Workers' Educational Association movement are to be found in the works of two men who were instrumental in its activities: "An Adventure in Working Class Education," by Albert Mansbridge, Longmans, Green & Co., London, 1920, and "The Story of the Workers' Educational Association from 1903 to 1924," by T. W. Price, Labour Publishing Co., Ltd., London, 1924.

to experience the things which are worth while. This conscious or unconscious pursuit of the best is the condition of ordinary human nature. Obscured by lesser affairs, hindered by lesser men, people may forget the objective for a time, but if it be only revealed to them they will rise and pursue it.[2]

These words represent not the untried faith of a neophyte, but they embody the experience of nearly twenty years. They are not to be read as the boastful prophecy of inexperience, but as the conclusion of battles fought and victories won.

It is not our purpose here to relate in detail the history of the Workers' Educational Association (W. E. A.). There were in the extension movement several basic faults which it sought to avoid. Extension came from the universities as a prescription rather than from the initiative of the workpeople themselves. Its conduct was entirely in university hands, and the workpeople had no voice in choice of subject, method of presentation nor selection of teacher. The lectures lacked continuity of subject, and the system did not *require* serious work from all who attended. The plan eventually adopted for the W. E. A. contemplated an association which should assume the initiative in asking university cooperation in its own program. This association[3] had as its first two members Mr. and Mrs. Albert Mansbridge. On July 14, 1903, a provisional committee met for the first time in Toynbee Hall. It consisted entirely of cooperators and trade unionists. A few weeks later an all-important meeting was held at Oxford which had from the beginning shown sympathy

[2] Mansbridge, *op. cit.*, p. xvi.

[3] At that time called "The Association to Promote the Higher Education of Working Men."

with the movement. It was attended by representatives of nearly all the universities and of a large number of labor unions. Here an executive committee was appointed, which fully represented the universities and the labor interests. The meeting closed with the passage of a resolution to the effect that the conference was of the opinion "that the necessary higher education of the working classes will be the best furthered by an associated effort on the part of trades unions, cooperative societies and Extension Authorities." [4] The great step had been taken. Under the powerful patronage of Oxford the trades unions and the universities had been brought together in what was destined to become the greatest of all English adult-education movements.

That the viewpoint of the workpeople was not immediately established in the academic mind seems evident from the apparent necessity of its repetition during the earlier years. At first the power to establish classes and appoint tutors lay only with the universities, as had been the case in the extension classes. This marked no great advance over the old system and was the cause of considerable dissatisfaction among the labor representatives. At a general meeting, held at Oxford in 1907, the issue was brought before the meeting for final settlement by a speech from Mr. J. M. Mactavish, a Portsmouth shipwright. The speech marks the beginning of a new order as well as the first public appearance of Mactavish, who later rose rapidly in W. E. A. councils. This speech represents so well the attitude of the English workingman of the period that extracts from it are herewith reproduced, in order to illustrate the force which was knocking at the door of

[4] T. W. Price, *op. cit.*, p. 16.

the universities. Mr. Mactavish, addressing the conference, said:

I am not here as a suppliant for my class. I decline to sit at the rich man's gate praying for crumbs. I claim for my class all the best of all that Oxford has to give, claim it as a right—wrongfully withheld—wrong not only to us but to Oxford. What is the true function of a university? Is it to train the nation's best men, or to sell its gifts to the rich? Instead of recruiting her students from the widest possible area, she has restricted her area of selection to the fortunate few. They come to her not for intellectual training, but for veneering. Not only are workpeople deprived of the right of access to that which belongs to no class or caste, but Oxford herself misses her true mission, while the nation and the race lose the services of its best men. I emphasize that point because I wish it to be remembered that workpeople could do far more for Oxford, than Oxford can do for workpeople. For, remember, democracy will realize itself, with or without the assistance of Oxford; but if Oxford continues to stand apart from the workpeople, then she will ultimately be remembered, not for what she is, but for what she has been. And now having made good my claim, or our claim, to her best services, what is it that workpeople want from Oxford?—Let us be frank with Oxford in this matter, because unless she understands what we want she can do nothing for us. The economics which emanate from Oxford are well adapted to meet the requirements and stimulate the minds of those young gentlemen who frequent her colleges, and because they are reduced to a science of social conduct and industrial practice which has made them and keeps them comfortable. But you cannot expect people to enthuse over a science which promises them no more than a life of precarious toil. —We want from Oxford a new science of national and international economics—a science that will teach us the true relationship between production and consumption; that will

teach us the true economic relationship in which men ought to stand to men, and men to women—a science based, not on the acquisitiveness of the individual, but on social utility.—And here let me say that I believe that one of the reasons, if not the great reason, why our university extension lectures have not been successful is due to the fact that the average university extension lecturer is decidedly middle- and upper-class in his outlook.—The man in the street can see that university education enables the son of a workingman to escape from his class; but he does not see that it builds up that sense of human solidarity which is essential to the lifting of the class itself.—We want Oxford to open wide her doors to the best of our people, and take them in.—We want her to inspire them, not with the idea of getting on, but with the idea of social service.—And finally let me say to young people: Strive to come to Oxford. To Oxford I say: Open wide your doors and take us in; we need you; you need us.[5]

Strong words for Oxford ears, savoring of radicalism and the overthrow of the economic system! Yet from the meeting of these two extremes came an understanding not hitherto existent and the establishment of a plan which satisfied at least the better elements of labor and received the hearty support of the universities. The immediate result of the meeting was the appointment of a joint committee of university and working-class representatives on the relation of the university to the higher education of workpeople. No less a man than the dean of Christ Church was elected chairman. In 1909 this committee presented their epoch-making report (Oxford, Clarendon Press), which cleared the way for joint participation by labor and university in the conduct of tutorial classes.

[5] Quoted by Mansbridge, "University Tutorial Classes" (pp. 194 *ff.*), Longmans, Green & Co., London, 1913.

The report, adopted in most of its essential details by the universities and the working element alike as a declaration of principle, may be looked upon as a sort of educational Magna Charta. It gave finally to the workingman, in theory at least, the equality of opportunity which Mactavish had demanded. That this equality is to a considerable extent even to-day unrealized is due to economic reasons rather than to any failure on either side to keep faith. The Report (now unfortunately out of print) discussed at some length the following subjects:

Chapter 1, "Educational Movements Particularly Affecting Workpeople."
Chapter 2, "The University and Colleges of Oxford: Their Purpose, History and Endowment."
Chapter 3, "The Oxford University Extension Movement."
Chapter 4, "The Demand Made by Workpeople for University Education."
Chapter 5, "The Establishment of Tutorial Classes Beyond the Limits of the University."
Chapter 6, "The Admission of Workpeople to Oxford."
Chapter 7, "The After Career of the Working-Class Students."
Chapter 8, "Summary of Recommendations."

A spirit of fairness and cooperation characterizes the whole. The recommendations provide for "organized systematic teaching" in selected centers. For attainment a special certificate is to be awarded under the authority of the university extension delegacy (committee). Special textbooks in economics are to be prepared, but the work in this subject must satisfy the university requirements. Students from the tutorial classes are to be able "regularly and easily to pass into residence at Oxford and to continue their studies there." For this purpose scholarships are to be established. The work of the tutorial classes is to be under the direction of a joint committee containing an equal

number of representatives from the university and from the Workers' Educational Association, this committee to be immediately responsible to the university extension delegacy. Thus the foundation was laid for the actual participation of the working classes in the conduct of at least one phase of university education. It is substantially on this basis that the great system of tutorial classes has been built up. In actual practice a joint committee of the kind indicated is now in charge of the work at each of the various universities and university colleges. The balance of power is often decided by the interest or aggressiveness of some individual member, representing either the university or the W. E. A., as the case may be. In most places the two sides work together harmoniously. The various local joint committees are associated in a central joint advisory committee for tutorial classes, of which Sir Henry Miers, former vice-chancellor of the University of Manchester, has been chairman from the beginning.

The English university extension movement was born at Cambridge, but to Oxford belongs the honor of fathering the first tutorial classes. It should here be made plain that the W. E. A. was already an active organization, engaged independently in various educational efforts, for several years before the beginning of tutorial classes. The first such class formed in 1907 was the result of cooperation between the Oxford university extension delegacy and the local W. E. A. branch at Rochdale.[6] The initiative came from the W. E. A. This fact is important, for it has since become the generally recognized part of the W. E. A. to recruit

[6] Mansbridge, "Adventure in Working-Class Education," p. 37. This class, though organized in 1907, did not meet until the beginning of 1908.

classes, assume responsibility for their organization and supervision and select a tutor in cooperation with the university. As a matter of actual practice, the class, when organized, invites a university tutor recommended by the joint committee to meet with them. He comes, discusses informally with the class members the range of subject-matter and, if his personality, attainment and suggested field of instruction are satisfactory to the class, he is engaged to teach them, his salary and traveling expenses being paid by the university from funds contributed jointly by the government, the local education authorities, and the university itself. The fee paid by the student is nominal. The students pledge themselves to attendance for three years, and serious work is required of all.[7]

The Rochdale class and another formed at the same time at Longton were pioneer tutorial classes. Coming several years before the Oxford meeting and report, these classes were not quite so democratic in character as those which followed later. True to the extension tradition, the university delegacy selected (upon suggestion by Mr. Mansbridge) the tutor, Mr. R. H. Tawney, a scholar of Balliol, who took up the work with both skill and enthusiasm. His success with these initial efforts was a large factor in encouraging future development.

The present organizing unit of the tutorial class work is, as already stated, the local joint committee, representing the university concerned and the W. E. A. This committee in all cases has jurisdiction over a considerable section of contiguous territory. However,

[7] The Reports of the central joint advisory committee show that the attendance percentage for the year rarely falls below 70 per cent in any class and is often in the eighties and even nineties.

the committees representing Oxford and Cambridge, the two pioneers in extension work, have the entire country as their field and still carry on classes within territory covered by the other universities. The rapid spread of the movement to all the universities and university colleges of England (also Scotland and Wales) began with the publication of the Oxford report in 1908. Mansbridge gives an enlightening table [8] of the progress made during the first decade, hampered though it was by the Great War:

University Tutorial Class Statistics in England and Wales

Year	Classes	Students
1908-09	8	237
1909-10	39	1117
1910-11	72	1829
1911-12	102	2485
1912-13	117	3176
1913-14	145	3234
1914-15	152	3110
1915-16	121	2414
1916-17	99	1996
1917-18	121	2860
1918-19	152	3799
1919-20	230	

The continuance of the growth of the work since that period is indicated by the class list of the central joint advisory committee on tutorial classes for 1925-26, which shows 399 classes in England and 92 in Wales, a total of 491, more than double the number of 1919-20. In addition there are 7 classes in Scotland. The distribution among the English universities and university colleges is interesting: [9]

[8] *Op. cit.*, p. 68.

[9] It must be borne in mind that the classes of each university unit are distributed over a considerable geographical area. Thus practically all England is reached by this work. Most of it is, of course, carried on in the larger urban centers or their suburbs.

Birmingham	34
Bristol	16
Cambridge	19
Durham (Durham div.)	24
Durham (Newcastle div.)	21
Exeter	5
Leeds	40
Liverpool	42
London	45
Manchester	38
Nottingham	52
Oxford	26
Reading	3
Sheffield	29
Southampton	5

With the increase in number of classes came of course an increase of student numbers. The following figures are taken from the Seventeenth Annual Report (1925-26) of the Central Joint Advisory Committee on Tutorial Classes: [10]

Year	Classes	Students
1919-20	229	5528
1922-23	362	7639
1923-24	398	8539
1924-25	454	8963
1925-26	525	9888

Naturally a large diversity of occupations is to be expected where so many students are concerned. The annual report, mentioned above, gives the following occupational figures, which include also the preparatory tutorial classes:

Clerks, secretaries, typists, telegraphists, etc.	1,845
Teachers	1,884
Colliery workers, miners and checkweighmen	975
Housewives, domestics, etc.	1,499
Metal, machine and tool workers	128
Engineers, mechanics and fitters	923

[10] The last two tables includes statistics also for the preparatory tutorial classes, hence the discrepancy in numbers, as compared with the first table.

Shopkeepers and shop assistants	440
Railway servants	353
Textile workers	207
Civil servants	499
Professional workers	173
Carpenters and woodworkers	184
Food workers	99
Tailors, dressmakers, cutters and milliners	258
Printers, engravers, bookbinders and photographers	128
Overlookers, foremen and managers	144
Builders, brick and stoneworkers	191
Insurance agents, travelers, and commercial occupations	115
Boot, shoe and leather workers	106
Miscellaneous factory workers	86
Postmen, tramwaymen, and policemen	168
Warehousemen	48
Draughtsmen and designers	89
Municipal employees	63
Electricians	54
Laborers	120
Blacksmiths	59
Potters	47
Miscellaneous, including gardeners, caretakers, etc., also unstated	642

Among the subjects studied were:

Economics, industrial and social history
Economic geography
Ethics
European art and culture
History, biographic
History, European, etc.
History, Jewish
History of British Commonwealth
Hygiene
International relations
Language and literature
Local and central government
Logic
Music
Political and social science and sociology
Principles of education
Psychology, philosophy and metaphysics
Science—geology, biology, anthropology, etc.

CHAPTER VIII

The Urban University of To-day

In preceding chapters an attempt has been made to describe the forces which have paved the way for the modern English urban university and moulded it to its present form. Enough has perhaps been said to give a reasonably clear picture of its formal organization and of the various services which it has assumed at the wish of the people. These things have been largely matters of fact rather than of personal observation or opinion. The writer realizes that any attempt by a mere observer from another country to interpret the spirit and success of these universities is subject to the possibility, even probability, of grave error. Such an attempt is necessarily based upon the personal interpretation of unfamiliar conditions, and is subject therefore to all the well-known fallibility of the traveler's tale. Nevertheless it would be wrong to exclude from the picture all traces of the direct impressions received in visiting these institutions and in meeting the men who are directing the various phases of their activity. Much of what is to follow has come from these men themselves in personal conversations or through correspondence. It is the hope of the writer that he may prove to be a reasonably accurate reporter and interpreter of the impressions thus received.

To the visitor from the United States the outstand-

ing fact is the spiritual kinship of the English and the American urban universities. Not only is the material form of the service effort largely identical in the two countries, but the motive which actuates it is the same. So true is this that one may picture a delegation of English urban university men as entirely at home in a meeting of the American Association of Urban Universities. So familiar to them would be the subjects discussed that only the difference of local conditions and of academic nomenclature might interpose a temporary obstacle. To both countries the same urban growth has brought similar problems and naturally the methods of solution are largely the same. Though the absence of state universities in England imposes upon the urban institutions certain duties of service to a considerable geographical area, they are nevertheless to be identified with our own urban rather than with our state universities. There is lacking in most of them anything equivalent to the multifarious activities usually designated as "extension-work" at our own state institutions. In most cases, too, a larger part of their financial support comes from national and local urban sources than from other geographical or educational units outside the cities of their location. For this reason there is not the same utter dependence upon the bounty of, for example, a county as is the case of our state institutions in their relation to the state. Hence the non-curricular activities of the English urban university are actually predominantly urban in character. The one exception is the work of the extension lecturer and the tutorial classes which, as already stated, cover considerable areas.

Generally speaking, the tutorial classes are remarkably successful and are enthusiastically encouraged

by the cooperating universities. In most cases the university men who make the direct contacts with the representatives of the Workers' Educational Association report that excellent relations are maintained and that a most friendly feeling exists. Practically there are usually two leading figures, the university faculty member in charge of the work and the representative of the W. E. A.[1] These two, if they work together harmoniously, are able to satisfy the requirements of both academic procedure and of labor demand. In some institutions the university representative is quite evidently in supreme command, while at one university at least, the major direction of affairs [2] is in the hands of the W. E. A. secretary, who has his office in the university buildings. Much of course depends on personality, and the system is flexible enough to allow natural leadership to be developed on either side.

While the relations between the universities and the labor movement are for the most part harmonious, even a casual observer must detect certain tendencies which are not without danger to the existing tutorial class system. These are traceable directly to the more radical labor element, which is by no means negligible in England. This wing of the party believes that little good can come to labor from the existing universities. A visible result of this protest is the foundation of the labor colleges, which endeavor to furnish education for workpeople without the assistance of the universities. Naturally a "specialized" system of economics and political science forms the basis of this education. The aim of this element of labor is frankly materialistic,

[1] The usual practice is for the joint committee to have two secretaries—one a university member and the other the Secretary of the W. E. A. district concerned.

[2] Subject, of course, to the authority of the joint committee.

and class consciousness is emphasized. The movement is openly a belligerent one and has been a source of considerable embarrassment to the W. E. A., which must, of necessity, stand well with both the trades unions and the universities. During its earlier years considerable emphasis was put upon the fact that the W. E. A. was primarily an *educational* organization, which had no desire nor reason to participate in political or economic disputes. With the growing strength of labor in political life and with the direct challenge of radicalism in education, this position has become more difficult to maintain. Recently, yielding to labor pressure, the W. E. A. has become party to an agreement ratified by the trades union congress, which involves some coordination between the various types of working-class education. In a statement explaining its position, the W. E. A. organization says, in part:

> The Trades Union Congress invited the four bodies concerned, *viz.*, the Workers' Educational Association, the National Council of Labour Colleges, Labour College, and Ruskin College, to come together, along with a representative of the Cooperative Union Ltd., as a committee under its auspices, on the strict understanding that each body should fully preserve its freedom in both principles and teaching methods. This coordination was thus definitely based upon a recognition of the fundamental differences of principles and policy among these bodies. If the W. E. A. had not been convinced that its established educational principles and methods were in no way jeopardized by the agreement, it would not have entered into it.

This association with the opposed school of thought in labor education, has caused considerable annoyance and apprehension in the universities and among local education authorities and has even led to some ques-

tion whether the present cooperative arrangement for the conduct of tutorial classes can be permanently maintained. However, the importance of the existing difficulty must not be too seriously estimated. It is of interest rather as an indication of certain disrupting tendencies which are inherent in the system and which are unfortunately always to be regarded as sources of potential danger. It is to be sincerely hoped that they may never become a serious menace to one of the finest achievements of modern English university development.

Excellent as the tutorial class system has proved itself to be, it has not as yet realized all the hopes of the joint committee which published in 1908 the remarkable report on "Oxford and Working-Class Education." The fact is due not only to economic conditions but also to certain unavoidable difficulties inherent in the plan. They may be summed up in the statement that tutorial class education is not, and at present cannot be, regarded as equivalent to regular university training. For example, only those subjects can be studied which presuppose no secondary-school preparation. Thus the natural sciences,[3] mathematics and the languages, at least on a university basis, are largely eliminated as possibilities, and an undue emphasis is given to the social sciences and those subjects which do not depend upon previous periods of rigorous mental discipline. Also, the work is not recognized as leading to a degree, although in some cases the necessary residence period may be shortened and the student's career furthered by scholarship grants. As a matter of fact, however, the number of tutorial students eventually attaining the degree has never been

[3] Except, perhaps, biology.

large. Mansbridge describes the tutorial class student as follows: [4]

> Two main types of persons join the classes, one consisting of men and women who are convinced that their work as citizens is accomplished inadequately because of their lack of knowledge, and who decide deliberately to give a great portion of three years to the acquisition of such knowledge; the other consisting of those who join the classes as the result of pure educational impulse. These types do not remain fixed throughout the years of the class. Men pass from one to the other. In any case, it frequently happens that the class becomes so large a portion of the lives of the students that they cannot with equanimity contemplate ceasing attendance.

Undoubtedly the tutorial class has attained its greatest success in reaching considerable numbers of workpeople and in elevating the class rather than the individual. It has therefore come nearer to realizing this educational ideal of the labor movement than it has to opening up a way for workpeople, either adolescent or adult, to enter the university. For our purpose it is of interest to try to analyze the reaction of the tutorial class system on the university itself. Unlike the earlier extension classes, it cannot claim credit for the founding of new universities, but it undoubtedly has brought the already-existing universities before the English people in a very favorable light and has gained approval from wide classes of population. Perhaps the most important influence has been that exercised upon the teaching staff. There can be no question of the salutary effect upon any teacher of occasional contact with adult minds in the practice of his profession. In

[4] University Tutorial Classes, p. 93.

all the universities visited, the men engaged in tutorial class work emphasized this point and seemed to find a large measure of satisfaction in the opportunity offered them for acquaintance, and often friendship, with their maturer students. The increased number of teaching positions also has served as a valuable outlet in providing careers for ambitious young scholars, and thus bringing new blood and new ideas into English university life. It is perhaps still too early to detect any marked influence in curriculum or subject-matter. However, faculty members were encountered who professed to see in this contact with the working classes a potential source of reorganization in the teaching of certain branches of the social sciences. At any rate the workingman has, in the tutorial classes, a hitherto unknown opportunity to present his political, social and economic views to the university world. These classes are also responsible for the creation of a new genus of teacher at the English university, namely the staff tutor, who devotes his entire time to the extramural class work. Opinions differ as to the desirability of this arrangement. Proponents argue that the interest of such a man is undivided and his work therefore more effective than that of the regular university teacher whose tutorial class is a side issue. Opponents on the other hand complain that the staff tutor is too remotely associated with university life and that he cannot therefore truly represent the university before his classes.

A short digression may be allowable here to consider the viewpoint of the English people toward the tutorial classes in so far as they manifest any attitude at all. As we have already seen, it is generally a favorable one. Strangely enough, the opposition, unimportant though it may be, comes from the most-widely-

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separated classes of society. The radical labor element, as has already been stated, looks with distrust upon the "capitalistic" tendency of university training and prefers to teach its own system of economics in the labor colleges. At the other end, a small element of the aristocracy and plutocracy still disbelieves in education for the working classes, and regards these efforts as a foolish and even dangerous experiment. Into this feeling is injected some of the traditional difference in viewpoint between the older aristocracy of the county and the newer democracy of the city. Thus we see these tutorial classes accused of aristocratic or capitalistic tendencies by the radicals, and of radicalism by the aristocrats. Fortunately the great mass of the people pays no attention to these divergent opinions and is fully in sympathy with the universities.

A vital factor of the success of the tutorial classes is to be found in the fact that the student pays but a nominal fee. This is explained by the desire to make the work available to even the poorest workman, and is justly regarded as an important step in educational democracy. It is noticeable, however, that the fees charged regular university students are considerably higher than the tutorial class fees and there seems here to exist an unjustifiable discrimination against the adolescent student. The explanation has been offered that the adult classes are *non-vocational* and are given in direct preparation for citizenship rather than in preparation for a profession or vocation, as is predominantly the case in the regular session. While this reasoning may not be universally regarded as sound, there is in our own country an exact parallel to be found in the law of the state of Ohio governing municipal universities. This law provides in effect that, in

such institutions, tuition may be charged in all courses except in the college of liberal arts, *i.e.*, a student may receive a liberal education without expense, but he must pay for instruction in those branches of knowledge by which he expects to earn his living.

At only one English university, Liverpool, does there seem to be a tendency to work independently in offering tutorial classes (or their equivalent), as well as with the W. E. A.[5] It is argued with some justice that all trade unions have not cared to affiliate with the W. E. A. and that there is no reason why the university should refuse to grant a direct appeal from these organizations. Thus classes have been given direct, for example, to the dock workers' union, at their own request, without reference to the W. E. A. organization. The same independent tendency is marked also in the Scotch universities. In England, however, it is the exception to the general rule, and the W. E. A. is, almost everywhere, the officially-recognized agency for cooperation.

The question has often been asked whether the English tutorial class system could be successfully transferred to the United States. As a matter of fact, sporadic attempts have been made to interest certain American colleges in teaching a peculiarly "labor" type of political and economic science, but the response from both workmen and colleges has been small. The two reasons which render the success of tutorial classes doubtful in our own country are to be found in the material prosperity of the American workman and the democracy of educational opportunity. American labor

[5] Nottingham has a number of classes in connection with a special miners' welfare adult education committee, which is a joint committee with the department of adult education, and is financed out of the welfare fund.

is more adequately rewarded and hence more content with existing conditions than is the case in England. More important, however, is the fact that opportunity is open in every large city for the workman not only to secure adult education of any type he desires, but also to send his children to college after they have received a free secondary education. A workers' educational association, as a connecting link between labor and the universities, would be an anomaly in the United States, for no such link is necessary. The great state and city universities belong to the workpeople as freely as to the rest of the population, and are by them as freely used. Useful, even indispensable, as is the W. E. A. in England, it must be regarded as the product of purely English conditions. Thus it has met with some measure of success in the British dominions and colonies, where English tradition prevails. But in the United States adult education must develop not merely as a workmen's enterprise, but in terms of the entire population.

Several efforts to provide education for workpeople by some phase of the part-time method have been made at the English universities, but these have never assumed large proportions. At Birmingham the plan is outlined as follows: [6]

INDUSTRIAL CERTIFICATE DEPARTMENT

As the result of an agreement made with certain trade unions, the University of Birmingham has established a special department for the systematic instruction of students nominated by the unions. The course occupies two full days—Monday and Tuesday—of each week during the twenty-six weeks of the university session. The scheme has

[6] Calendar of the University of Birmingham for the Session 1925-26, p. 187.

been approved by a representative body of Birmingham trade unionists; and the administrative committee includes, along with academic members, one representative of each union sending six or more members.

The lectures and tutorial assistance are provided by the university without charge; and note-books and text-books are also supplied freely to the students. The unions, for their part, undertake to make compensation, where necessary, for loss of wages, and in the case of union officials, to free them from all duties on the days they attend the University. Further, the unions are expected to make the necessary arrangements with employers as to leave of absence from work.

The subjects of study are:

1. Modern European history
2. National and local government
3. Modern industry and economics
4. Social philosophy
5. English literature

In addition to these courses of lectures tutorial assistance is given to students in the principal subjects; and special stress is laid on the preparation of essays and practice in clear expression.

An industrial certificate is awarded after the examination, which is held in June.

The plan outlined above has evidently not satisfied the expectations of those concerned, since it is just now in abeyance.

A somewhat similar opportunity is offered by the university college of Nottingham for adult working-class students. The course takes up two whole days in each week and is planned to cover two years: [7]

[7] University College, Nottingham, "Prospectus of Day Classes," 1925-26, pp. 79-80.

FIRST YEAR
- Economics
- Economic organization
- Industrial history
- General history
- English

SECOND YEAR
- Advanced economics and economic organization
- Statistics
- Political history
- Social psychology
- Logical method

Other subjects may be added, if time allows. A certificate is granted for satisfactory completion of the work, and free studentships are granted by the college to selected students on condition that the trades union or other organization makes arrangements for absence from employment and for maintenance where necessary. The plan differs essentially in many ways from our own cooperative engineering system, but particularly in the fact that the college deals with the organizations rather than the employer directly.

The University College of Nottingham, which was the first college developed directly from extension teaching, has the distinction of possessing the only department of adult education in England.[8] Thus its head, Professor R. Peers, M. C., M. A., is the only professor of adult education at an English higher institution. The department, according to its constitution, is organized for the following activities:

(a) The provision of three-year university tutorial

[8] However, a number of other Universities (Cambridge, London, etc.) have approximately the same thing under other names. University College at Exeter has a "Department of Extra-Mural Studies."

classes and one-year preparatory classes leading up to tutorial classes.

(b) The provision of university extension courses and other courses of lectures of a university character in non-vocational subjects.

(c) The arrangement of internal courses at the university college and other approved centers for adult working-class students, more particularly for students in extra-mural classes and similar students who might profit by continuous training, but whose circumstances do not permit them to take advantage of the ordinary facilities for full-time study.

(d) The training and provision of tutors and lecturers for extra-mural classes and courses.

(e) The investigation of problems connected with adult education, and the publication of such reports and information as may be approved by the departmental committee.

Two factors at least distinguish the work in adult education at Nottingham: (a) its organization as an independent department, rather than as a subsidiary function, drawing upon other departments; this means the creation of a staff whose whole time and energy is given to this highly specialized work; and (b) its expressed conception of adult education in England as eventually capable of development into a science covering all classes and widely-extended fields of knowledge, in distinction to its present commonly accepted limitation to workpeople. The success of this department of adult education, expressly organized with a single object in view, is witnessed by the fact that Nottingham has more tutorial classes than any other English college or university.[9]

[9] See table on p. 90.

The efforts just mentioned, supported by government grants for the education of workpeople, are typical of the attitude of the state toward higher education in England. There exists a feeling of *national* responsibility, which is entirely absent in the United States. In England the urban universities lean heavily on the national exchequer for support, as well as on the councils of their own city and adjacent communities. In fact, as has been previously stated, every university and university college in England is now in receipt of income from national sources. This is not surprising in a nation which has subsidized a great industry (mining) and which maintains an unemployment relief system. In our own country it is the individual state and the city, not the nation, which have adopted higher education as a function. There are, however, certain important differences. In America no state is called upon to support, even in part, eleven great universities, as well as numerous colleges of different kinds. Nor is the plan of joint university support by state and city known in America generally.[10] The English system is particularly interesting to us in view of the efforts made in recent years to establish a department of education in our national government, and the initial desire of its proponents to link up with it a plan for national subsidies to certain forms of education. The failure to extend this latter phase of the attempt, beyond its already long-established usage in the Department of Agriculture, seems to prove that the American people do not believe in joint support of universities by several political units. Thus it is probable that state and municipal universities will continue to keep their

[10] The Georgia School of Technology receives a grant from the city of Atlanta in addition to its income from the state.

individual characters in the United States. The English urban university, however, partakes of the nature of both, in so far as its financial support is concerned.

If we put aside consideration of purely formal differences in organization and source of income, the new English university remains the spiritual brother of the American municipal institution. Both are free from religious prejudice or test, both are the result of local pride and industrial or economic need, and both find their highest expression in service to the students of their own communities. They may be justly ranked among the best creations of modern urban civilization.

PART II
THE UNITED STATES

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CHAPTER I

The Development of an Urban Type

In England the ancient and the modern periods of university foundation were separated by an interval of six or seven centuries. Until fifty years ago the medieval type as represented in Oxford and Cambridge (and more recently in Durham) was the only kind of teaching university which England knew. Not until 1880, with the foundation of the Victoria University, did the new university period begin. The rise of the English urban institution has been described in previous chapters as the direct result of the desire of the working classes and the great middle classes for higher education. There were no already existing academic foundations on which to build. Only a few Mechanics' Institutes, People's Colleges, and Extension Classes existed at the time when urban concentration of population made imperative the demand for a new kind of university.

In the United States the situation was essentially different. From the earliest colonial days colleges were a part of the life of the American people. They represented, as it were, a gesture of freedom on the part of the early American settlers hitherto deprived of educational opportunity by a rigid class system in the older countries. It is immaterial for our purpose whether they were patterned upon English or continental models. The important fact is that their pres-

ence at so early a date indicated the basis of educational freedom which has made the United States unique among the countries of the world. The problem of adapting colleges and universities to existing conditions was therefore in our country no problem at all, for we had no hampering background of educational tradition, no handicap of class distinction, and, in most cases, no serious barrier of economic inability to grasp the opportunity offered. Growing simultaneously with American civilization, our universities are not a foreign graft upon the parent stem, but a part of the very trunk of the tree of our national life. It is interesting to note from the following table [1] that the American colonies had already founded before the War of the Revolution nearly as many colleges and universities as exist in England at the present time, though the population and wealth of these colonies were but infinitesimal in comparison with the population and wealth of the England of to-day:

Foundations before the American Revolution

1636 Harvard, Massachusetts
1693 College of William and Mary, Virginia
1701 Yale, Connecticut
1746 Princeton, New Jersey
1749 Washington and Lee, Virginia
1751 University of Pennsylvania, Pennsylvania
1754 Columbia, New York
1764 Brown, Rhode Island
1766 Rutgers, New Jersey
1770 Dartmouth, New Hampshire
1776 Hampden-Sidney, Virginia

[1] Andrew Fleming West, The American College, p. 37 (Education in the United States, ed. by N. M. Butler, Monograph No. 5, J. B. Lyon Co., Albany, 1900).

That this tendency to multiply colleges has later often led to undesirable results is not germane to this discussion. But the existence of colleges from the earliest days does prove the essential unity of higher education with the life of the nation, a unity which England has only recently begun to achieve. Such a condition has from the outset assured the eventual adaptation of the higher institutions to the needs of the communities which surrounded them. As President Butler has said: [2]

> Spontaneity is the keynote of education in the United States. Its varied form, its uneven progress, its lack of symmetry, its practical effectiveness, are all due to the fact that it has sprung, unbidden and unforced, from the needs and aspirations of the people. Local preference and individual initiative have been ruling forces. What men have wished for, that they have done.

In all comparisons of the American and English urban universities it must be borne in mind that those of the mother country are younger in origin than our own. At the time of the foundation of the Victoria University at Manchester in 1880, America already had a considerable number of colleges located in its larger centers of population. Before the first decade of the present century, the period during which most of England's newer universities were established, America had not only developed the municipal university type but had in her privately endowed urban colleges firmly established the principles of community service and cooperation. In America the growth of such institutions had occupied a period of more than two hundred years. In England it came almost explosively during

[2] Education in the United States, *op. cit.*, p. VII.

the last fifty years, as the result of a political and social pressure felt since the beginning of the nineteenth century.

The long period of development in America is responsible for certain basic differences between the institutions of the two countries. These differences exist not so much in present aims or in methods as in original type of foundation. The English urban universities were nearly all founded upon private or semi-public institutions serving the middle and working classes. They are to-day all supported in greater part by public taxation. The American urban universities are of most diversified origin and control, representing as they do various periods and interests in a long history of national development.

Naturally, not all of the colleges of the United States located in cities are of true urban type, as that term is used in this discussion.[3] But for the sake of a complete presentation of our own situation a list is furnished herewith [4] of all colleges and universities in the United States located in cities of 100,000 population or over. The colleges in this group are of considerable interest. Including only 145 out of a total number of 913 reporting to the Commissioner of Education in 1924,[5] they nevertheless contain nearly 270,000 students out of the total of 664,226 enrolled in all the institutions. In other words, more than forty per cent of all college students in the United States are being educated in cities of 100,000 people or more. Beyond all question the amazing increase in college attendance in the last two decades has taken place

[3] See definition, p. 50.

[4] See Appendix B.

[5] Statistics of Universities, Colleges and Professional Schools, 1923-24, Bulletin 1925, No. 45, Bureau of Education, Department of the Interior, Washington, 1926.

largely in the institutions situated in the larger cities.

The growing importance of this urban type cannot be ignored. City life and location have definitely put their stamp upon almost every phase of academic activity. Certain institutions have responded quickly to these influences while others have retained their isolation from modern life. Generally speaking, the public institutions have been the leaders in adapting themselves to urban conditions. Particularly the municipal and state universities have felt the urge of community contact in the determination of educational policy. But in the larger cities, particularly, great private institutions have adapted themselves with equal readiness. One need only mention Columbia and New York University, George Washington University, Northwestern, and Chicago, to prove the adaptability of privately supported universities to the new conditions. Harvard, our oldest American institution, is keenly alive to the new demands, as is shown by her Graduate School of Business Administration and her cooperation with her neighbors in offering college work at night.

Many of the colleges in urban locations have, on the other hand, been but little affected by environment. This is particularly true of some of the schools controlled by churches or religious denominations, though by no means of all of them. In certain instances, however, the cultural or the religious element has continued predominant to the exclusion of that vocational factor which plays so large a part in determining the functions of most of the urban institutions. At the other end of the picture stand the purely professional schools, devoted to technology and the

learned professions. Altogether these 145 institutions have nothing in common but urban location, and any attempt to draw further parallels of similarity would be quite useless. For such a purpose we shall have to turn to a smaller list, namely the membership of the Association of Urban Universities.

This association represents an attempt at organization on the basis of similarity of function. Its members are of most varied origin, size and type of control. It includes the oldest private university in America and the youngest municipal college. To it belong institutions variously controlled by the church, by the state, and by private, self-perpetuating corporations. But one thing they all have in common, namely a desire to interpret education in the light of modern civilization, to adapt its content and methods to the life of to-day. The meetings of the association are therefore refreshingly free from any slavish subservience to tradition. The things which its members discuss are in great part things which few colleges have done before, or at least they have not done them long enough to have established the inviolable sanctity of tradition.

Hence there prevails an agreeable freshness of thought and a willingness to experiment, to entertain new ideas, and to learn. The association was founded in 1914 at Washington, through the efforts of Dr. Charles W. Dabney, then President of the University of Cincinnati. Its membership is as follows:

In this list are assembled most of the institutions in the United States which may be classified as belonging to the true urban type. There are of course a few outside the list which should, in the interests of completeness, be included in any detailed study:

MEMBERS OF THE ASSOCIATION OF URBAN UNIVERSITIES

	Founded	Control
Boston University	1869	Non-sect.
Brown University	1765	Non-sect.
Carnegie Institute of Technology	1905	Non-sect.
Case School of Applied Science	1880	Non-sect.
Clark University	1889	Non-sect.
College of the City of New York	1849	City
Drexel Institute	1891	Non-sect.
Evansville College	1919	Methodist
George Washington University	1821	Non-sect.
Hamline University	1854	Methodist
Harvard University	1636	Non-sect.
Hunter College	1870	City
Johns Hopkins University	1876	Non-sect.
Municipal University of Akron	1872 1913	[Sect.]—City
Municipal University of Wichita	1895 1926	[Sect.]—City
New York University	1831	Non-sect.
Northwestern University	1851	Methodist
Ohio State University	1872	State
Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn	1854	Non-sect.
Syracuse University	1871	Non-sect.
Temple University	1884	Non-sect.
Toledo University	1884	City
University of Buffalo	1846	Non-sect.
University of Cincinnati	1874	City
University of Denver	1864	Methodist
University of Louisville	1837	City
University of Minnesota	1869	State
University of Pennsylvania	1740	Non-sect. (State aid)
University of Pittsburgh	1787	Non-sect. (State aid)
University of Rochester	1850	Non-sect.
University of Toronto	1827	
Vanderbilt University	1875	Non-sect.
Washington University	1853	Non-sect.
Western Reserve University	1826	Non-sect.
Wittenberg College	1845	Lutheran

For our purpose however an analysis of those here mentioned (34 in number, excluding the University of Toronto) will serve to show the forces which have brought the urban universities of the United States into existence:

Publicly controlled:		
by a city	7	
by a state	2	9
Privately controlled:		
Methodist	4	
Lutheran	1	
Non-sectarian	20	25

A fuller treatment of the city-supported institutions will be found elsewhere in these pages. The state institutions are of course not primarily of the urban type, but are so placed that a considerable part of their constituency is directly at their door in the cities of their location. Necessarily their service to the urban community is only a part of the public function which they perform.

Of the 25 private institutions, only five are frankly sectarian. Few, if any, of the others were ever under religious control. Most of them are the result of gifts or of the enterprise of an individual or a group of persons. Unlike many of the English urban institutions, they owe their existence rather to the generosity of the wealthy than to the struggle of the working classes. There have been but few large American cities in which the workman's son or daughter could not in recent years find ample opportunity for higher education. Naturally this has not always been the case, but it is safe to say that it has been true since that great period of college building which occurred during the quarter century following the Civil War.

Chronologically the institutions included in the membership of the Association of Urban Universities are widely separated in time of origin. One was founded during the seventeenth century and three during the eighteenth. Twelve were established in the nineteenth

century before the beginning of the Civil War, and sixteen during its last four decades. Only two are products of the twentieth century. Thus, while in England most of the newer universities were from their beginnings of the distinctively urban type, the most of the American institutions have grown up with their cities, so to speak, and have taken on urban nature only as their surroundings demanded it. For this development no definite period can be generally assigned. Naturally the process occurred earlier in the larger cities. But even here it may be included in the span of life of men still active in service. Prof. Brander Matthews of Columbia University bears eloquent testimony to this in the following passages [6] descriptive of Columbia University at the time when he was a student there:

The college which I entered as a student in the fall of 1868 was a totally different institution from the university of the same name in which I am now a professor; and to those who know Columbia in the first quarter of the twentieth century as one of the strongest and most coherently organized of American universities, it is not easy to convey an illuminating idea of the simplicity and isolation of Columbia College in the third quarter of the nineteenth century.—The main building of the college was architecturally pretentious, but undeniably shabby in its coat of dingy stucco; and this was flanked by two smaller edifices equally devoid of dignity and beauty. One of these smaller houses was the residence of a professor, whose wash was flaunted in our gaze at the beginning of every week; and the other provided a large, bare room which served as a chapel, while the upper floor contained a library, such as it was. The main building had half-a-score of class rooms; and here also was the office of the President.—It would not

[6] College in the Seventies, by Brander Matthews, Columbia University Quarterly, March, 1917, pp. 129 ff.

be difficult to draw up a list of things common in nearly all of the colleges of the present which were totally absent from the Columbia of my early undergraduate days. We had no dormitories; we had no gymnasium and no athletic field, no swimming pool, and no boat house; we had no crew, no baseball nine; we had no glee-club and no mandolin club; we had no dramatics, no performances of plays ancient or modern; we had no intercollegiate debates; we had no college paper, daily or weekly; we had no student reading rooms, nor had we any books that students were really expected to read.—For us the college was only a continuation of the school we had just left, with no larger opportunity and with no change in the method of instruction. The program of studies was rigidly restricted and it did not vary year after year.—We were expected to prepare so many lines of Latin and Greek, or so many problems in mathematics, or so many pages of the text-book in logic or in political economy; and in the classroom we were severally called upon to disgorge this undigested information. And it was information that we were expected to acquire, rather than the ability to turn this to account and to think for ourselves.

One has only to compare this picture of the simple little college of half a century ago with the Columbia of to-day to envisage the whole cycle of evolution of a great urban university. And it must be borne in mind that the New York of fifty years ago was even then a very large city, fully deserving the sort of service which the modern urban institution now gives. But such a thing was then unthinkable. Colleges stood aloof in academic isolation with no thought of adapting curriculum or facilities to the life which surged around them. Location made no difference in this particular. There was apparently little, if any, difference in the offerings of colleges situated in city and coun-

try. The broadening influences of the elective system were not yet astir in the land. All prescriptions for study rested on traditional and largely on religious foundations. Thus Horace Greeley, speaking at Akron, Ohio, at the laying of the cornerstone of Buchtel College on July 4, 1871, said: [7]

> Hence the higher education of our day—most wisely in purpose, if not always in methods—essays to base its institutes and processes on religion, and to ground the character it seeks to form on the firm foundation of Christian faith and love. It realizes that the youth is but half educated at best whose intellect is developed and instructed while his moral sense remains dormant, his conscience asleep if not perverted.

A little more than half a century later, at the same institution, President George F. Zook in his inaugural address said:

> From this general review of the situation you will see that I conceive the future University of Akron [8] to be an enlarged institution with buildings, equipment and faculty which are adequate to offer the courses of study demanded by young men and women in this city and which can supply the industries, the schools and other interests, public and private, with a much larger proportion of the trained engineers, chemists, teachers and others who are needed in technical and professional work. Such a program is of no mean size. But I would not stop at this point. We should round out the program by the development of liberal studies and by the establishment of a music conservatory and an art museum either as parts of the university or in

[7] Fifty Years of Buchtel, ed. by A. I. Spanton, printed by the University of Akron, Akron, 1922.

[8] Buchtel College formed the nucleus for the Municipal University of Akron, established in 1913.

close correlation with it. In other words, let us visualize all these tasks as aspects of one large and comprehensive program of higher education to be carried to completion for and by the citizens of Akron. Conceived in this spirit and in this magnitude, the University of Akron will be not only a great center of community service but a civic monument which may well stir the imagination deeply.

Between these two utterances, delivered at the same institution, there is no essential conflict of educational theory. Certainly few to-day would dispute the necessity for character training on the basis of religion. But the modern urban university has broadened its function to include definite material services to its constituency. It believes that it has found a legitimate extension of its field in the preparation of young people for the various callings of civic life and for good citizenship.

This in short is the spirit which has brought our American urban institutions into their present position. Different as they are in origin and control, they represent a clearly distinguishable type of educational effort. No other American colleges or universities stand upon a firmer foundation. Their appeal is in large part a direct one to an immediately adjacent population. From their cities most of them draw their main support in students and material resources. With the increasingly urban type of our population, it is only reasonable to suppose that these institutions will, as the years go on, assume an ever growing importance in the American system of higher education.

CHAPTER II

The Effect of Urban Location

It is evident that the development of a new type of institution in the field of higher education in America has taken place as a direct response to the will of the people. Such responsiveness to popular demand has been shown to be particularly characteristic of our own country. From the beginning it has been possible for the people to have the kind of institution which they wished to have. But only within the last few decades have they realized this power. Formerly their interest in colleges and universities was less generally felt and more rarely expressed. There still existed the traditional aloofness between town and gown. College administration, and particularly curriculum making, were generally felt to be the exclusive business of educational experts. The advice of laymen was rarely sought or offered. Three factors began gradually to modify these conditions. The growing complexity of civilized life multiplied infinitely the number of problems requiring expert solution, and for these solutions the people turned to the colleges and universities. The number of college graduates, particularly in the cities, began to assume considerable proportions, and this fact provided a natural channel for freer intercourse between the everyday world and the academic sphere. Finally the multiplication of publicly supported institutions of higher learning brought

the people face to face with their responsibility for the wisest possible expenditure of the constantly increasing public funds required for the support of their own colleges and universities.

The result of these influences is plainly manifest today in the growing enrollments in colleges everywhere, but particularly in those colleges which have most freely adapted themselves to the new program. The picture is clearly drawn by New York University in the preliminary announcement of its contemplated journal "New York":

> American life and higher education have come together. Learning is seen to have practical value. The rush to the colleges and universities by the oncoming generation is proof enough, if proof is needed.
>
> Scientific research gave rise to the new impulse. It affected not only the learned professions. It revolutionized other branches of endeavor. Agriculture and industry sought help from the college man. Then out of research in strictly scientific fields came a method of approaching problems in which the human element predominates. The so-called social sciences—economics, psychology, sociology —under university discipline were brought to bear on the great questions of distribution and personnel, as well as on certain features of production.
>
> Business research by universities has attained vast importance. Business leadership may now be said to depend in no small degree upon that broad training and background which institutions of higher learning distinctively furnish. The scope of university influence has steadily widened beyond the learned professions to all manner of human affairs. A fresh point of view has beeen created.
>
> Modern life looks for guidance to the scientific spirit, broadly construed. This is a good omen for, whatever the activity, the scientific spirit recommends a comprehensive

view, careful progress from ascertained facts, and reasonable conclusions. The home of the scientific spirit is the university, not any one department, but all.

Among the many changes which have been brought about in university education by the influences just mentioned, it is not always easy to segregate those which may be especially attributed to urban location. The contribution of the state universities, for example, has been considerable, though few of these are located in large cities. It must be borne in mind however that most of them include large cities in their constituency, and that these cities, though at a distance, have distinctly influenced their development.

Perhaps the most amazing phenomenon in the evolution of higher education has been the enrichment of the curriculum of the arts college. This has come as the result of a widening conception of its aims and purposes. Originally conceived at Harvard as an agency for the training of ministers of the gospel, the arts college curriculum grew next to include the general education of professional men as a class. Closely correlated with this conception of its purpose was always that interpretation of "liberal" education which, originally confined to the classics, literature, and philosophy, has now been extended to include a host of new fields of knowledge, presumably of an equally liberalizing character. Through all, the arts college has waged a constant battle against those who would vocationalize its offerings. When the old disciplines of the so-called natural sciences developed a practical turn, these were segregated and new colleges of engineering, applied science, etc., sprang up. When economics began to specialize in the field of business training, the arts col-

lege gave birth to a new child, the more recent school of business administration. But in spite of all these branchings from the parent stem, the increasing field of human knowledge has enriched the arts curriculum out of all semblance to its original form. Thus its aims have become more and more indeterminate. Koos,[1] as the result of a widely conducted inquiry, lists in first line of purpose "general or liberal training," "civic-social responsibility" and "morality and character." Secondarily are mentioned "training for life's needs," "religious training," "training for leadership," "occupational efficiency," "mental discipline," "preliminary training" and "developing scholarly interest and ambition." In addition at least twelve other aims are mentioned. Enough has been said to show that the factor of association with one's fellow beings is one of the most important determinants of the arts curriculum to-day. Unquestionably this condition is in large part due to the reflection of the demands of urban life.

In specific proof of this statement it is interesting to examine the arts curriculum of a couple of generations ago in comparison with the offerings of the same curriculum to-day. General conditions of the earlier day are well portrayed by Dean West[2] of Princeton:

With but few and unimportant exceptions, the four-year course consisted of prescribed studies. They were English literature and rhetoric, Latin, Greek, mathematics, natural philosophy, chemistry, the elements of deductive logic, moral philosophy, and political economy, and often a little

[1] The Junior College Movement, by L. V. Koos (p. 253), Ginn & Company, Boston, 1925.

[2] Monographs on Education in the United States, *op. cit.*, Monograph No. 5, p. 6, by Andrew F. West.

psychology and metaphysics. Perhaps some ancient or general history was added. French and German were sometimes taught, but not to an important degree. At graduation the student received the degree of bachelor of arts, and then entered on the study of law, medicine or theology at some professional school, or went into business or into teaching in the primary or secondary schools. Such was, in barest outline, the scheme of college education a generation ago.

Let us mention briefly the changes which have come even to some of these basic departments of learning as a result of contact with urban civilization. In the teaching of English direct application is now made to the uses of engineering and commerce. Latin and Greek have, to the sorrow of many of us, been forced to yield much ground to the more "practical" modern languages. Mathematics has flowered into numerous applied forms, as for example in its uses for engineering, statistics, accounting, insurance, etc. Chemistry has helped to build great industries, and college offerings to-day abound in specialized courses in the chemistry of rubber, steel, clay and other products. Political science experiments with cities and states as laboratories, while the teaching of psychology is applied to the practical purposes of urban school systems and great industrial undertakings. A great new science, called sociology, has been based upon human relations in society, and every urban institution offers specialized courses in its applications to city life. If we venture further into the field of university training in general, we find innumerable subjects based more or less directly on urban needs: architecture, business and commerce, education, engineering, journalism, library science, public health, real estate and insurance. These

represent but a few of the demands which the people who live in cities have imposed upon the universities to which they look for training.

Not only in the matter of the curriculum have urban conditions remade the colleges. With enriched courses there has come also a distinct loss in the benefits inseparable from the academic seclusion and leisure gained by location in a small community. "College spirit" in the best sense of that oft misused term has suffered in many particulars, but there has been perhaps a corresponding gain for those wise enough to see it. The faculty member of a college in a large city has advantages as well as disadvantages in comparison with his colleague in a rural institution. He is perhaps more a man of affairs, in personal contact with those phases of life which affect his department. For him there often exists too the material advantage of opportunity for consulting work in industry. Be this a favorable or unfavorable influence in its effect on his academic life, it is nevertheless a potent factor in bringing men of attainment to the great cities. There must also be taken into consideration accessibility to libraries, good music, dramas and the company of fellow workers in the same field. Every college president and dean knows from experience the difficulty of drawing good faculty material away from the great centers of population to the smaller communities.

In many urban institutions the student body is at a great disadvantage from lack of campus or proper facilities for outdoor sports. However this is likely to be the case only in the largest cities. Such a loss cannot be measured by material standards. All critics to the contrary, youth of the college age is particularly susceptible to beauty of surroundings. Denial of such

beauty does definitely injure the development of the aesthetic sense, a loss which our nation can ill afford. The memories of a college life spent among beautiful surroundings form an intangible treasure which is not the least of the benefits of higher education. In this respect the tendency toward urbanization of our higher training is often unfortunate. On the other hand the student in the city does unquestionably develop from his associations a self-reliance and maturity which is admirable. Though the privilege of doing outside work for self-support is very commonly abused, he who earns his own way is prone to regard his education more seriously and to take better advantage of his opportunity. One urban institution has a club to which only men students are eligible who are entirely self-supporting. The character and seriousness of purpose which exists among these men is surprising, and their pride in their achievement is certainly pardonable. They are proud of their good scholastic attainment and of their ability to support themselves in the process of learning. Generally speaking, the student in the city is perhaps more mature and experienced in social relationships, more self-reliant, more "grown-up." He probably lives at home, for most urban universities draw from sixty to ninety per cent of their students from a limited local area. He comes, as a type, from the great middle class of our population, often from the home of the workingman. His preparation has usually been gained at a public high school rather than at a private school. There is no reason to believe that he is mentally different from the student of the non-urban college. His aim in going to college is increasingly vocational rather than liberal or cultural. Generally speaking, he expects to spend his life in the

community in which he is studying or in a similar community elsewhere. For these reasons his college life is perhaps less artificial than is sometimes elsewhere the case. But he does nevertheless almost certainly suffer a loss in the imponderable joy of youth which comes from a broader opportunity to develop the aesthetic, the imaginative and the spiritual.

In many urban institutions, particularly in those without dormitories, student discipline presents an almost negligible problem. For this there are two main reasons. The students have but little idle time in which to go far astray, and the burden of supervision lies with the institution only during the hours of actual attendance. However, this is not an unalloyed blessing. Lack of control by the university of hours for leisure and study is too apt to result in scholastic difficulties and too much outside activity. The home, nominally in control, has often relinquished all responsibility. As a frequent result, the urban student is not uncommonly the freest of all created beings in his lack of responsibility toward any governing authority. It is only fair to say that this independence of action, so early achieved, does not seem to have led to any general catastrophe.

How far we have come from the rigorous restrictions which governed the students in at least some of our colleges half a century ago becomes apparent when we read the rules which were common at that day. The following is reproduced in full from the published regulations of a middle-western denominational college of the seventies, as a striking example of the relations of students to faculty in those days, and as a basis for measuring the extent of modern student freedom, particularly in the urban type of institution:

1. Students are expected to be kind and respectful to others.

2. Students, while connected with the College, are strictly forbidden the use of intoxicating liquors, tobacco and profane or indecent language on the college premises or so far as the college has any jurisdiction.

3. No student is allowed to take or remove furniture from the rooms; to mark, cut, drive nails into the buildings; to throw anything to or from the windows; to spit upon the floors, or in any way deface the College property.

4. Students must refrain from all improprieties in the halls, such as boisterous talking or scuffling, and must not visit each other's room without permits.

5. Young men and young women are not allowed to take walks or rides together without permission.

6. Students of different sexes are not permitted to visit at any time each other at their rooms. Violations of this rule will receive severe punishment.

7. A student boarding in the College is not expected to invite a friend to a meal, or to tarry in the building over night, without the permission of the Superintendent of the building.

8. No student shall fire gunpowder in the College building or on the premises, or engage in card-playing or any form of gambling in the College or in the city, or visit liquor saloons or billiard rooms, or commit injuries upon the person or property of any student.

9. Students are not allowed in the kitchen, bakery, or storeroom, or basement of the College. Assignments will be made from time to time to the students for using the Gymnasium; the young women will have their seasons for exercising in it, and the young men theirs.

10. Students who find it necessary to be out of the College in the evening later than the hour the doors are closed for the night, must make previous provision for entering the College with some Professor or officer of the College. Entering through a window or by a forged key, or in any

improper way, will subject a student to suspension or expulsion.

11. The Faculty shall have authority to visit and search any room in the College, using force if necessary to enter it, and assess all damages occasioned by violations upon the offender.

12. Suspended students shall not be permitted to resume their place in their classes until they shall have passed a satisfactory examination in all the studies pursued by the classes during their suspension.

13. At all public exercises given in the College Chapels, the young men will occupy the east side, and the young women the west side.

14. Students who shall violate any lawful order of the faculty, or treat with insult or contempt, the person or authority of any College officer, or refuse to admit an officer into their rooms, or conduct themselves in a disorderly manner in consequence of the infliction of punishment upon a fellow student, shall be subject to admonition, suspension, or expulsion.

15. A student disturbing religious services at any time by coming in late, or by any misconduct, will receive demerits for each offence.

16. Students boarding in the College will receive one demerit if five minutes late at a meal, or for any disorder in the dining-room, or for tarrying in it after meals, or for any misconduct in coming to or going from it. Day students are not allowed above the first flooring of the College building without special permits.

17. Students having received five demerits, will be privately admonished; having received ten, they will be publicly admonished; having received fifteen in the same term, they will be subject to suspension or expulsion.

18. A sentence may be mitigated, or withdrawn if it shall appear from the penitence of the student and other circumstances, that this can be done without detriment to the authority and moral influence of the College.

Student self-government is nowadays too common to occasion remark. It represents the direct antithesis of the spirit embalmed in the rules quoted above. If such antiquities still remain in force anywhere in the United States, it is certainly not in the urban institution. Here the greater economic independence of the student body, occasioned by the presence of so many individuals who are wholly or in part self-supporting, has led to a sense of personal and group responsibility which evidently was non-existent in the early days. The typical urban student of to-day resents arbitrary dictation, but is grateful for suggestion and intelligent leadership. He is above all cooperative, and this characteristic is perhaps in no small measure due to a mental habit of adjustment to the community life of the large city.

It is a belief commonly held that fraternity life has suffered in the urban university. Particularly the older and better established fraternities and sororities are prone to look with some distrust upon many of their own urban chapters and to oppose bitterly the granting of new ones in large communities. The feeling is based upon a number of arguments. Attendance at this kind of institution, it is urged, is largely local. Hence it will be difficult to recruit enough resident members of a fraternity house to maintain it properly. Interests of students do not center in the institution and its life, but are diffused throughout the city. The type of student recruited is "not good fraternity material," etc., etc. It is safe to say that none of these arguments are solidly grounded. Certainly every national fraternity has strong old chapters in the larger cities, maintaining excellent fraternity houses with a fine type of membership. Thus the hypothesis arbi-

trarily set up is not borne out by fact. The difficulty lies in the traditional conception of a fraternity chapter. Most fraternities were founded in the non-urban colleges. The early chapters lived under delightful academic conditions, with houses located on ample lawns and with a membership whose horizon of interest was too often limited to purely local conditions. It has been rightly said that young people, students, are of all created beings the most conservative. For this reason it is not surprising that the significance of urban university development has not penetrated the understanding of many fraternity men and women. The newer organizations, naturally less conservative and ever on the lookout for good new chapter material, have capitalized this situation and in many cases stolen a march on the older fraternities by realizing that the college field is definitely shifting in the United States from the country to the city, and that those fraternities which are able to realize this truth and to act upon it intelligently will eventually find themselves in a strong position.

From all which has been said, it must become evident that urban location has had a pronounced influence on almost every branch of university activity. The curriculum, the faculty, the student body, all these have necessarily adapted themselves to their surrounding conditions. As a result of this there has come into existence in this country a type of higher institution unknown half a century ago. While many of its manifestations have brought just criticism, we must reckon with the urban university as a permanent asset of modern civilization, a valuable asset founded in service and based upon cooperation. That its philosophy of education, though often revolutionary in the

eyes of the conservative, is not entirely illogical or bad, seems evident from the fact that other civilized nations, notably England, have come through similar conditions to approximately the same results. Theoretically it is fine to believe that colleges are leaders of thought and directors of the course of civilization. Actually they are perhaps far more often the product of their surroundings. But at least they are intelligently cooperating units in a progress dependent upon an infinitely great number of factors. If they can help to raise the intelligence of the people, produce a few great leaders, and add occasionally to the sum of human knowledge, they will justify our national confidence in their omniscience.

CHAPTER III

The Founding of the Municipal Universities

It is a common misconception to believe that municipally supported colleges or universities are recent products of American life. Actually they represent one of the oldest types of educational organization and support. When the middle ages began to produce the first ancestors of the modern university, the primary impetus came from groups of students who had gathered, at first informally, about certain great teachers, as was the case with Abelard at Paris. Many of the early continental universities were in cities of considerable size. In proof one has only to mention, besides Paris, also Bologna, Prague, Vienna, Padua, etc. Naturally the cities became interested in these groups for, while the medieval students were often an impecunious lot of adventurers, yet prestige and profit were to be gained from the presence of an educational organization in a city, then as to-day. Hence cities began to grant subsidies and here, perhaps, originated the municipal university idea. Such were, in greater or less degree, some of the earlier German foundations, as for example Cologne and Erfurt, founded in the fourteenth century.

Europe to-day is not without the municipal type of institution. The English urban university has already been fully described in earlier chapters. While it does not in most cases depend entirely, or even principally, upon the city of its location for support, yet

it does enjoy substantial income from municipal sources. As has been shown, these English urban universities are of quite recent origin. Even more recent is the revival of the municipal university idea in Germany. During the early months of the great war (October, 1914), the first of the new German municipal universities was opened at Frankfort. Holliday [1] gives an interesting account of the events which led up to this occurrence:

> The tone of the whole event indicated that here was something new under the sun; for, though the state of Prussia stubbornly retained the right to appoint all professors, this was a deliberate effort on the part of a city to free itself intellectually from state domination. A brief examination of the development of this institution may be enlightening as showing how easily and almost unconsciously a city university may gradually come into existence. In 1688 the Frankfort city library was established. Then came a city medical institution and in 1763 these two and some semi-public museums were combined into the Senckenberg Institute, so named from one of the noted medical investigators of the city. Early in the nineteenth century this institute was almost in a bankrupt condition; but note the method of its rescue. In 1816 the Polytechnical Society was founded; then in 1817 the Senckenberg Natural History Society, and in 1824 the Physical Club and the New City Library. Now began a concerted cry for new buildings. The clubs and societies were performing public service; they were entitled to working space. The founding of the Hochschule or Technical College in 1866 and the City Hospital and Clinic in 1896 pointed unerringly to the need for a grouping of the educational forces into one great plant. Then in 1903 more than two million marks were raised for the Carl Jugel Institute, and then followed

[1] Carl Holliday, The Municipal University, p. 5. Reprinted from School & Society.

a union of this institution with the city Academy of Social and Commercial Science. By 1910 the hue and cry for a concentration of all these forces into one great plant with adequate buildings could no longer be ignored, and after careful deliberation the city council authorized in March, 1912, the establishment of a municipal university. Thus the united efforts of at least nine societies, clubs and small institutions so wrought upon the civic mind that a great and rich university of infinite possibilities has resulted.

At present Germany has also two other universities of the municipal type, namely those at Hamburg and Cologne. In all of these institutions especial effort is being made to carry on a form of adult education by giving lectures particularly intended for so-called non-matriculated students, that is for persons (mostly of maturer years) who are not candidates for degrees. In Hamburg this movement has advanced to the stage of a separate "Volkshochschule," or People's University (opened in 1919). This institution is governed by a committee composed of an approximately equal number of representatives of its own faculty, of its student body, and of the University of Hamburg. Paragraph 46 of the University Regulations states (in free translation):

"The Volkshochschule is intended to promote the education of the whole population. It offers to all the opportunity for direct contact with the world of knowledge. It is not a vocational school." [2] Points of similarity with the English Tutorial Class system are apparent in the cooperation of the laboring classes with the university in the management of the project, in the participation of university faculty members in the

[2] Volkshochschule Hamburg, Vorlesungen, Arbeitsgemeinschaften im Winterhalbjahr 1925-26, p. 3.

instruction, and in the disclaimer of vocational purposes.

The municipal university, as we know it in the United States, may be defined as an institution of higher learning, supported mainly by municipal taxation, requiring graduation from a first-grade high school, or its equivalent, for entrance, and maintaining a four-year course in arts and letters, around which a greater or less number of other schools or departments may be grouped. Its field consists principally in developing intelligent and efficient citizens and in furnishing to its city expert advice, service and cooperation. The term "university" has been adopted by all the American institutions of this type with the exception of the College of Charleston, the College of the City of New York, Hunter College, and the College of the City of Detroit. This has been done by the three institutions located in Ohio in order to conform to the nomenclature of the law of the State and, generally speaking, by these and the others through lack of any other name to apply to an institution which has extended its sphere beyond the limits of the single college, but which may still lack some of the professional and graduate schools of the traditional university.

Contrary to actual fact, the belief is widespread that the municipal university has recently entered the field of American education. Nothing could be further from the truth. In reality the year 1837, which witnessed the establishment of the first *two* municipal institutions, the College of Charleston and the University of Louisville, found the principle of state support represented in only a few scattered institutions. But the growth of the state university has so far outstripped that of the municipal university in regard to numbers

and importance, that the early history of the latter has been generally ignored or forgotten. While the future of state university development was assured by the passage of the first Morrill Act in 1862 and by subsequent legislation, the municipal university, by its very nature, has never enjoyed a federal subsidy or encouragement of any sort from national sources. Consequently its growth has necessarily been sporadic, since each community has had to solve its own problem in its own way. The variety of causes which have contributed to the establishment of the existing municipal universities can be best illustrated by a detailed treatment of the specific cases.

There are at present nine institutions in the United States which fulfil the definition of a municipal university as just given. These are in the order of their establishment as *public* institutions:

The College of Charleston (South Carolina)	1837
The University of Louisville (Kentucky)	1837
The College of the City of New York (New York)	1847
Hunter College (New York)	1870
The University of Cincinnati (Ohio)	1870
The University of the City of Toledo (Ohio)	1884
The Municipal University of Akron (Ohio)	1913
The College of the City of Detroit (Michigan)	1923
The Municipal University of Wichita (Kansas)	1926

There are also a number of other institutions which enjoy some municipal subsidy and, in this respect at least partake of the nature of the municipal university. For example, several of the city-supported normal schools have attained college grade and are generally so recognized. As instances may be mentioned the Chicago Normal College and Harris Teachers' College of

St. Louis. Of similar nature is the Lowell Textile School at Lowell, Mass. It was founded in the "Mother Textile City of America" for the purpose "of instruction in the theory and practical art of textile and kindred branches of industry." [3] In this respect it resembles some of the urban institutions of England, but it has not been developed beyond the study of textile engineering. Other textile schools are located in Fall River and New Bedford. Certain municipal aid is also enjoyed by the Georgia School of Technology and the Newark (New Jersey) Technical School. In addition, for the sake of completeness, must be mentioned the numerous junior colleges supported by city Boards of Education. All of these higher institutions which receive city support, but are not to be classed as municipal universities, will be more fully discussed in future chapters.

It is difficult to find any single, general principle or cause underlying the foundation of our municipal universities. While the example of certain institutions undoubtedly influenced the establishment of others, yet the original incentive in every instance lay in local conditions, rather than in any country-wide movement, such as existed with the state universities. Perhaps a study of the individual cases in chronological order may serve to give the most logical presentation of the subject.[4]

The year 1837, in which both the College of Charleston and the University of Louisville were established as public institutions, marks a very early period indeed in the history of higher education in the United States. Yet even at that time nearly eighty colleges were al-

[3] Bulletin of the Lowell Textile School, Series 29, No. 3, 1926.

[4] For much of the information contained in the following pages the author is indebted to the official publications of the institutions mentioned, particularly to their catalogs.

ready in existence, a little more than a third of them being south of what is now known as the Mason-Dixon Line. It was a period of considerable activity in college foundation. In the decade 1830-1840, thirty-four new institutions were established, not less than nine falling in the year 1837.[5] The local circumstances in Charleston and Louisville differed essentially. In the former there already existed a private college of long standing. In the latter, a new municipal institution was created by a decree of the City Council.

The early history of the College of Charleston is of particular interest. As a private institution it antedates by several years the earliest of the state universities, the original meeting to consider the establishment of a college having taken place in 1770. In 1785 a charter was granted by the General Assembly of South Carolina, and in 1790 the college was opened. Grave financial difficulties followed, and for a number of years only a seminary or high school was conducted. In 1824 the collegiate curriculum was reestablished, and in 1837 the Legislature of the State agreed that the property rights and interests of the college be transferred to the City Council, which, on its part, promised to provide the resources to maintain the institution. Particularly interesting is the fact that, in addition to appropriations for current expenses, the City Council from 1839 to 1881 contributed one thousand dollars annually to establish an endowment fund which grew to the sum of $61,000. This effort, extending over more than forty years, to build up an endowment fund from public moneys, is perhaps unique in the history of publicly supported higher education in America. In addition,

[5] Cf. table in Monographs on Education in the United States, *op. cit.*, Monograph No. 5, p. 37, by Andrew F. West.

numerous gifts were received from individuals, and the total endowment now amounts to more than $300,000. Not until 1918 was the college open to women. In this year the Board of Trustees by resolution opened the departments of instruction in the college to both sexes equally, but the crowded condition of the classes soon made it necessary to restrict the enrollment of women to residents of the city and county of Charleston.

The University of Louisville, founded in the same year in which the College of Charleston became a public institution, has, unlike its contemporary, no record of past existence as an independent college. Here it was not a question of taking over a struggling private institution in order to save its very existence, as has been the case with several of the municipal universities. On the contrary the City Council of Louisville, on April 3, 1837, founded the University by decree and granted to the new institution a city square and $50,000 for a building. It is a rather remarkable case of civic appreciation of education, at a time when not even secondary training was generally accepted as a public function. The original foundation took the form of a School of Medicine, the only instance in America of a medical school furnishing the nucleus of a municipal university. However, the vision of the people of Louisville was not limited to this field alone, even at that early day. In 1846 the corporation was chartered as a municipal university by the Legislature of Kentucky, and in this charter occurs the significant statement:

> The said President and Trustees of the said University of Louisville shall have full power and authority to establish all the departments of a university, for the promotion of every branch of science, literature and the liberal arts;

they also may establish faculties, professorships, lectureships, and tutorships, and alter or abolish the same at pleasure; and may appoint a faculty, professors, lecturers and tutors thereto, and may remove any one or all of them at pleasure, and appoint others in their stead.

A School of Law was put into operation soon afterwards and in 1908 a coalition of the various schools of medicine in Louisville with the University was effected. A year previously a College of Arts and Sciences had been opened, which recently, on the opening of the Speed Scientific School, has become the College of Liberal Arts. The University has in late years received notable gifts from private sources and in 1925 was benefited by a bond issue by the city of $1,000,000 for the expansion of its plant.

The College of the City of New York, originally founded as the Free Academy in 1847, is witness to the fact that the North, as well as the South, was awake to the advantages of a public city college. The original name "Free Academy" was probably chosen to fit the appropriation law of the state,[6] just as the term "Municipal University" seems to be a legal necessity in Ohio. The incentive came from the President of the Board of Education, Townsend Harris, who headed the Committee of three, which brought in a majority report in favor of the establishment of the new institution, referred to therein as a "College or Academy." A minority opinion against the project was reported by the third member of the committee, and a bitter argument ensued in the newspapers of the day. Finally the Board of Education adopted the essential features of the major-

[6] M. E. Cosenza, The Establishment of the College of the City of New York, p. 51. Published by the Associated Alumni, New York, 1925.

ity report, and the Free Academy was authorized by an act of the Legislature, following a favorable referendum vote of the people of New York City. The school was opened in 1849 and in 1866 received its present name, The College of the City of New York. This seems to furnish the first instance of initiative in the establishment of a municipal college on the part of a public Board of Education.

For nearly a quarter of a century after the birth of the Free Academy, no American city entered upon the project of public higher education. The private colleges founded during this period were largely in the states west of the Alleghany Mountains, and these communities had not yet grown to sufficient size to contemplate a similar public undertaking. The disturbances of political thought which culminated in the Civil War diverted men's minds in a measure from education, and such public energy as was left was largely centered on the development of that new project, the high school. But New York City, with its free college for men, became after the war a natural field for an experiment in the higher education of women at public expense. None of the municipal universities at that time in existence admitted women to their doors. The entering wedge in New York took the form of a college for women, with a secondary purpose of professional preparation for the teaching profession. This institution was Hunter College,[7] founded in 1870, chartered as a college in 1888 and continued under its present name since 1914. In the original name one seems to sense a concession to the feeling of that day, particularly in the east, against the admission of women to higher education. The public mind might be recon-

[7] Originally called The Normal College of the City of New York.

ciled to training women as teachers, but not so easily to providing a liberal education for them at the city's expense. Fortunately Hunter College has had the wisdom to develop from the first its character as an academic institution.

In April, 1926, a measure passed by the Legislature of New York State became a law, in accordance with which a Board of Higher Education was established in New York City, whose function it becomes to govern both the College of the City of New York and Hunter College, with their various branches. The new Board was called into being as a direct result of the desire of other boroughs (notably Brooklyn) to establish branches of the free public colleges. Thus the public higher educational institutions of New York assume a unity and a magnitude unparalleled anywhere else in the world. The spectacle of a city of more than 8,000,000 people providing college training for men and women at widely separated centers, under the guidance of a single authority is unique in higher education, and the resulting organization already rivals the greatest of our state universities in numbers and in annual budget.

The year 1870 not only witnessed the foundation of Hunter College, the only city college exclusively for women, but marked also the beginning of the municipal university movement in Ohio, where it has since flourished as in no other state. This is due to the fact that the legislature of the state in that year passed an act "to enable cities of the first class to aid and promote education." This law became the nucleus of Ohio's famous municipal university code, the first legislation passed by any state specifically giving authority to all of its larger cities to establish city colleges or muni-

cipal universities. The laws recently passed in Michigan and in Kansas for the same purpose were naturally influenced by the experience of Ohio in its fifty year program of municipal university building. The New York law establishing a Board of Higher Education, is not a comparable kind of legislation, since it provides only for cities of a million inhabitants or more, which of course limits its present applicability to New York City alone.

The passage of the initial law in Ohio was due to the situation in the city of Cincinnati. In 1858 Charles McMicken gave to the city most of his estate for the purpose of establishing two colleges for white boys and girls respectively. Owing to adverse court decisions much of the original property was lost to the city, and not until 1870 was it possible to found the University of Cincinnati on the basis of McMicken College, with aid from the city in the shape of a bond issue [8] to provide a suitable building. Until the new building was ready in 1875, classes were carried on in temporary quarters by teachers from Woodward High School. The first addition to the new institution was the Cincinnati Observatory which passed under the control of the Directors of the University in 1872.

The history of the University of Cincinnati is one of constant growth. By a process of agglomeration many of the educational institutions of the city have come into affiliation with it. In many cases these were considerably older than the university itself. Among them are the Cincinnati Law School, founded in 1833 as the fourth law school in the United States,[9] and the Med-

[8] Granted in accordance with additional legislation passed in 1872.
[9] The following law schools were already in existence: Harvard, 1817; Yale, 1824; University of Virginia, 1825.

ical College of Ohio, founded in 1819 as the first medical school west of the Alleghany Mountains. It is particularly noteworthy that the law and medical schools of the two neighboring municipal universities of Cincinnati and Louisville are among the oldest pioneer professional schools of the middle west.

In many ways the University of Cincinnati holds a unique position among the municipal institutions. It is the only one which may rightly claim the title "university" on the traditional basis, since it includes a graduate school and most of the professional faculties. It has made a major contribution to education in the development of the cooperative principle in engineering and business training. Above all it has had a profound influence upon the younger municipal universities and is almost alone responsible for the development of a municipal university code in Ohio, a code which has since influenced all similar legislation in other states. In numbers it shares with the municipal colleges of New York, the distinction of a leading place, and in community services it has perhaps been the most fruitful of all the institutions of its kind.

The example of Cincinnati was not without effect in Ohio. In 1872 Jesup W. Scott and wife of Toledo had conveyed to a body of Trustees one hundred and sixty acres of land for the purpose of incorporating the "Toledo University of Arts and Trades." In 1884 this institution became a municipal university under ordinance of the City Council, acting upon authority granted by the state laws already operative in Cincinnati. The history of the institution has been one of many changes. Professional schools have been established and, in some cases, again abandoned. Unfortunate quarrels and political difficulties have unques-

tionably hampered the normal development of the university. Within recent years however attendance and public appropriations have increased in a most encouraging manner and have betokened the growing interest of the people of the city.

A considerable interval elapsed before another city decided to establish a public institution of higher learning. In a little less than half a century after 1837 six municipal universities had come into existence, namely at Charleston, Louisville, New York (2), Cincinnati and Toledo. Nearly thirty years passed by before another Ohio city, Akron, decided to take advantage of the state code and to establish the seventh municipal university in the United States. Its foundation was, as in all other previous cases, except New York and Louisville, a private institution. Buchtel College had been founded by John R. Buchtel, a pioneer citizen, and by the Universalist denomination in 1870. Dwindling support and attendance from church sources, and increasing local attendance brought about its adoption as a municipal university by the city of Akron in 1913. Its growth since that time in both attendance and income has been very rapid and it enjoys the good will of the citizens in remarkable measure. In Akron, as in Cincinnati, political machination has been entirely absent in university affairs and full control has been exercised by the Board of Directors. Akron owes its inception and growth in large measure to the example of the University of Cincinnati.

The eighth municipal institution of higher learning in point of time of foundation is the College of the City of Detroit. Like the College of the City of New York, it is the creation of a Board of Education. But it is unique among its kind since it is the first municipal

university established on the basis of a public junior college. This was organized as a part of the Detroit public school system in 1915 under the name of Detroit Junior College. As a matter of fact the institution grew out of the plan of former Superintendent Chadsey to concentrate all students who were doing graduate work in the Detroit high schools into Central High School. This brought about thirty students here in 1912-13, and arrangements were made to give credit for this work at the University of Michigan. The numbers increased rapidly and an actual junior college was being carried on informally for at least two years before the legislature passed an enabling act in 1917. The following figures for registration show the great demand for such an institution:

Junior College:	Students
1912-13	30
1919	700
1921	1100
1922	1200
1923	1400
Four year College:	
1924	1558
1925	1673
1926	1924 [20]

By act of the legislature in 1923 the college was allowed to extend its work to a four year course and to grant degrees. The Board of Education of Detroit also maintains two other institutions of college grade, the Detroit Teachers College and the Detroit College of Medicine and Surgery. A School of Pharmacy is connected with the College of the City of Detroit. It

[20] The information given above has been furnished by the kindness of Assistant Dean Albertus Darnell, of the College of the City of Detroit. The figures represent the registration for the first semester only.

is said that there is a distinct prospect of the assembly of these hitherto uncorrelated units into a Municipal University of Detroit with the possible addition of a law school.

The ninth, and most recent, of all the city universities is the Municipal University of Wichita, at Wichita, Kansas. In 1892 a number of citizens of Wichita established Fairmount Institute, which assumed college status in 1895, when it was chartered as Fairmount College of Wichita. Support was promised by the Congregational Education Society. As at Akron and elsewhere, attendance assumed a predominantly local aspect, and the city was appealed to for support. Unlike Ohio, Kansas had no state-wide municipal university code, and it was first of all necessary to secure the passage of proper legislation. Models were sought in the enabling acts of New York, Ohio and Michigan, and favorable action was soon secured from the legislature. After one defeat by city referendum in 1925, the Municipal University of Wichita was established by an overwhelming affirmative vote on April 24, 1926. The university is unique in being the first representative of its type west of the Mississippi River.[11]

A study of what has been said shows that six institutions (Charleston, Louisville, Cincinnati, Toledo, Akron and Wichita) owe their foundation to an act of the city council, while the remaining three (C. C. N. Y., Hunter and Detroit) are creations of the Board of Education. Five (Charleston, Cincinnati, Toledo, Akron,

[11] An excellent history of the American municipal universities by R. H. Eckelberry has recently appeared in the Educational Research Bulletin of the College of Education of the Ohio State University, Vol. VII, Nos. 1, 2, 4, 5, 7, 8 (Columbus, 1928), under the title: The Origin and Development of the Municipal University in the United States.

and Wichita) were established on the basis of already existing private colleges, and four (Louisville, C. C. N. Y., Hunter and Detroit) were created as public institutions. In every case, as has been said, the creation of a public university has been due to local conditions, influenced in some cases by the example of other cities. On this basis alone there is no reason to believe that the future growth of this idea in American cities is destined to be anything but sporadic, as has been the case in the past. But a new factor, the public junior college, which is a development of the past few decades, has injected a new element into the situation. Cities which would never dream of establishing an entire public college or university at a single step, are embarking in considerable numbers upon the junior college plan as a legitimate extension of the public high school. What has already happened in Detroit is a clear indication of what will probably happen with increasing frequency in other large cities. The municipal university has found in the junior college its first motivation as a nation-wide movement. What has hitherto occurred at rare intervals as a single step will in the future be multiplied many times by indirection, *i.e.*, by the gradual growth of public junior colleges into full-fledged colleges and universities.

CHAPTER IV

Municipal University Operation

In its development in the United States the municipal university has established no standard form as has, in a measure, the state university. No two of these institutions present even approximately the same picture. They vary from the single college of the liberal arts type to the fully developed university. Their general tendency is to establish the customary professional schools, where population warrants, but a formally organized graduate school giving the Doctor's degree, exists in only one instance. Usually the state university provides both graduate and professional training at public expense, and the work of the municipal university may, or may not, duplicate these offerings. If the surrounding population be large, such duplication is often justified by the number of students resident in the immediate vicinity, but the municipal universities in the smaller cities have, in most instances, found it inadvisable to enter into the more elaborate and costly fields of professional education. In this respect these institutions have been in a true sense the product of their environment, and their flexibility has proved to be not the least of their assets. Their locations vary from a city of less than 100,000 inhabitants to the metropolis of New York itself with a population of more than 8,000,000 people. The results of these varying backgrounds may perhaps be best illustrated by

the following table in which the work of each institution is noted:

THE WORK OF THE MUNICIPAL UNIVERSITIES [1]

Municipal University	Liberal Arts	Medicine	Law	Dentistry	Scientific School	Graduate School for Ph.D. Degree	Business	Engineering	Education	Evening Session	Nursing & Health	Applied Arts	Home Economics Household Admin.	Fine Arts
Charleston	x									x[2]				
Louisville	x	x	x	x	x									
C. C. N. Y. ...	x[3]						x[4]	x	x	x				
Hunter	x[5]									x				
Cincinnati	x	x	x	[x[6]]		x	[x[7]]	x[7]	x	x	x	x	x	
Toledo	x[5]								x	x				
Akron	x						[x[7]]	x[7]	x	x			x	
Detroit	x									x				
Wichita	x[5]						x		x	x				x

[1] Only separate schools or divisions, as listed in the respective catalogs, are tabulated.
[2] In commerce.
[3] College of Liberal Arts and Sciences.
[4] School of Business and Civic Administration.
[5] College of Arts and Sciences.
[6] The Ohio College of Dental Surgery was affiliated until quite recently.
[7] College of Engineering and Commerce.

Apparently these institutions are nearly all alike in two particulars, the offering of the work of the arts college, and the maintenance of an evening session. Five of the nine have a school or division of education, four a school of business training, and three a college of engineering. In both institutions where law and

medicine are represented, these professional schools are old foundations of the early part of the past century. No municipal university now maintains or has successfully maintained a school of law or medicine of recent origin. The position of the University of Cincinnati as the most highly developed of all the municipal universities, is evident from the table above. It has the advantage of being practically alone in its field, the unquestioned leader of higher education in its city. In New York the idea of professional education at popular expense has made less headway, except as regards the training of teachers. Doubtless the presence of professional schools (particularly in law and medicine) in connection with great privately supported universities is partly responsible for this situation. The new University of Wichita has initiated a novel and interesting experiment in the foundation of a school of Fine Arts as a unit of the university. While aesthetic values are sometimes most difficult to justify to the taxpaying public, there can be no doubt of the obligation of public higher education in this particular, and the policy of Wichita is an encouraging sign of an awakened civic consciousness.

It is noticeable that most of the municipal universities are located in cities in which there is no other college or university of commensurate importance. This is, of course, not unnatural, since the accessibility of a local college is the strongest argument in establishing such a public institution, an argument which would be weakened or nullified were adequate private colleges already in the field. This has been the case in Cleveland where recurring efforts to stir up public interest in a municipal university have failed to arouse general enthusiasm by reason of the presence of already

existing privately supported institutions. And yet there is perhaps already a faintly discernible line existent between public and private colleges and universities in our system of education. On one side we have the tendency toward education of the masses, freely open to all, as evidenced by the laws of certain states which make it mandatory upon public state universities to accept the graduates of all first grade high schools, irrespective of standing. On the other side is evident the tendency of the older and stronger private institutions to choose their entrants with extreme care, rejecting many who could enter a public institution unquestioned. If this situation means the beginning of an educational class or caste system, it is fraught with grave danger to our democracy. But the thoughtful observer prefers to see therein a process of adaptation to conditions which are both natural and unavoidable. May we not frankly and willingly accept the fact that certain colleges are doing their best service by intelligently conducted education of the masses, while others may legitimately train smaller numbers, carefully chosen not for wealth, but for ability and industry? Surely we may believe so until we see that the products of these two types of college are actually separated by caste lines in after life. At present certainly there is no tangible evidence that the graduate of the highly selective private college has any unfair advantage over the graduate of the public institution in the competitive struggle for a place in the world.

Municipal universities have been pictured as the products of their environment. In no particular is this more true than in respect to the laws under which they operate. Just as there is no standard municipal university type in America, just so there is no standard

municipal university code. The earlier universities, Charleston, Louisville, C. C. N. Y., and Hunter, were chartered by their legislatures as specific cases. Not until it became necessary for the Ohio legislature to consider the problem presented by the University of Cincinnati, do we have the beginnings of a statewide legislation, giving to all Ohio cities the privileges enjoyed in the first instance by Cincinnati alone. Between the time of the establishment of the University of Cincinnati in 1870 and the foundation of the University of Akron in 1913, Ohio had worked out a complete set of laws applicable to municipal universities. These laws provided, among other things, for: administration and management, appointment of Directors, definition of their powers and duties, levy of taxes, issuance of bonds, relations with city council, exemption from taxation, etc. Though these laws are added to and amended in small particulars at almost every legislative session, they are as a whole constant and form an excellent code for the control of the three Ohio institutions. Their success has been due in large part to the broad powers granted to the University Board of Directors, to the long period of the latter's tenure of office, and to the segregation of the university levy from levies for other city purposes. Their main weakness has lain in their failure to grant the taxing power (within prescribed limits) to the University Board, and in their neglect to provide adequate levies or bonding provisions for capital outlay for the construction of new buildings and the purchase of equipment. Other states, notably Kansas, have remedied these weak points in their own legislation, passed later.

The history of legislation in Michigan, which comes

next in chronological order, is simple. In 1917 the Michigan legislature passed a law authorizing Boards of Education in any school district having a population of more than 30,000 people, to establish two year junior colleges. Nothing more was necessary, for all details, including expenditures of funds, were automatically cared for by laws already governing the procedure of the Board of Education. In 1923 the previous statute was amended by a provision which gave the privilege of establishing junior colleges to school districts of more than 25,000 and not more than 250,000 inhabitants, and allowed districts of more than 100,000 people to maintain four year colleges. On the basis of these two enactments the College of the City of Detroit has grown.

Two years later the State of Kansas, acting in response to the request of friends of Fairmount College at Wichita, passed an act which constitutes a complete municipal university code. This code was formulated with full knowledge of what had been done in a similar way in other states. It has attempted to avoid the weaknesses of previous legislation and represents today without doubt the most advanced and the best general municipal university code in existence.[1] A brief summary follows: provision is made for the establishment of a municipal university by any city in the state having more than 70,000 and less than 110,000 inhabitants. A Board of Regents is established, to whom very broad powers are given. They may levy taxes, and return unexpended balances to a permanent university sinking fund. In place of the half of one mill allowed in Ohio, they may levy taxes up to two mills and have entire charge of their expenditure.

[1] For a full reproduction see Appendix C.

Otherwise the code is based substantially upon the Ohio legislation. The complete independence given to the University Board of Regents in levying taxes and otherwise in conducting its affairs brings this Board to a level comparable with that held by city Boards of Education and represents the culmination of a long period of evolution in legislative thought upon this subject.

While several American municipal universities were created by act of the City Council, in no case is the immediate direction of any one of them entrusted to this body. Thus we have nowhere a situation comparable with that at Manchester, England, where the Manchester City Council is ranked first among the governing bodies of the Manchester Municipal College of Technology. The practice of our own municipal universities in this respect is interesting. The principle of government by special university boards chosen for this purpose has been generally established and is common to most of the institutions. The College of the City of New York, originally founded by the Board of Education, was governed by that body until 1900, when a separate Board of Trustees was created by legislative act. Hunter College was governed by the Board of Education until 1915, when it also was placed under the control of its own Board of Trustees. Recently (1926) both these institutions have been included under the act consolidating the Boards of Trustees of public colleges and establishing on this basis a single Board of Higher Education, with power to create new collegiate centers. Detroit is at present the only institution directly controlled by a Board of Education, though this relation will doubtless grow more common with the inevitable expansion of public

junior colleges into four year institutions. At Charleston, the City Council elects three out of fourteen elective members, and the Mayor and City Recorder are members ex-officio. Others are either self-perpetuating or elected by alumni. At Louisville the trustees are appointed by the Mayor and approved by the Council, and the same principle is in force at the three Ohio universities as well. Appointment by the Mayor is also a feature of the new Board of Higher Education in New York. Wichita has departed from precedent by establishing a Board to which four members are elected by the Board of Education and four by the City Council, with the Mayor as a ninth member ex-officio. All of these plans have advantages and weaknesses. Control by a Board of Education is likely to be undesirable when funds are scarce, since preference is naturally given to primary and secondary education as the more essential and more general functions. At the same time a close coordination of the whole educational system of a city is possible under this plan. Perhaps the most commonly used method has the most to commend it, namely appointment by the Mayor for long, overlapping periods. In most cities where this system is used it has resulted in the maintenance of Boards of a high character. The Wichita plan, while still untried, may, by decentralization of responsibility for appointment, result in undesirable political influence and activity. It has, however, the advantage of being particularly representative of the people's will, as exercised through two elective bodies.

An American municipal university has, in general, but three possible sources of income: taxation, tuition, and private gifts. Each of these deserves study. The general scope of tax support of higher education by

cities in the United States has already been outlined. The principle of such support is definitely established, not only in municipal universities, but in many professional schools and junior colleges. Generally speaking, in the case of the municipal universities, the tax is levied, or the appropriations are made, by some body other than that directly in charge of university affairs. Thus, in the Ohio universities, the city council controls the purse strings and thereby is in position, indirectly, to control the university. At Cincinnati, however, a subsequent provision of the city charter has made the levy mandatory up to the legal limit, if requested by the university Board. At Akron custom has in recent years given the full levy annually, but in Toledo there has been much variation, to the disadvantage of any consistent university policy. In New York it is mandatory upon the Board of Estimate and Apportionment to raise and collect by taxation the sums requested by the trustees of City College, within the legally specified limits. At Wichita alone, as already stated, is the university Board empowered itself to levy taxes. Thus we may distinguish three varieties of procedure in the process of taxation for municipal university purposes: voluntary taxation by a central municipal governing body other than the university trustees, as at Akron and Toledo; mandatory taxation by a central governing body at the direction of the university trustees, as at the College of the City of New York and at Cincinnati; and taxation by the university trustees directly, as at Wichita.

No municipal university, in so far as is known, enjoys a regular tax income from the state, or from federal sources. At Atlanta, however, the Georgia School of Technology presents the unusual picture of an insti-

tution supported jointly by state, county and city. The city for a number of years has given $50,000 annually and Fulton County contributes $10,000.[2] This instance is the nearest approach in the American educational system to the English plan of supporting urban universities by contributions from the city, local boards of education, surrounding district authorities and the state. As already noted, certain other state schools of a professional nature receive city aid as, for example, the three Massachusetts Textile Schools at New Bedford, Fall River and Lowell, and the Newark (New Jersey) Technical School.

In return for support by the cities the municipal universities have set up more or less restricted forms of the free tuition plan for their constituents. In New York tuition is entirely free at both of the public colleges, but attendance is definitely limited to residents of New York City. Charleston has, since 1920, given free tuition to residents of the city and since 1923, to residents of the county. Both Louisville and Cincinnati grant free tuition in the College of Liberal Arts to students resident in the city, but charge tuition to all students in professional schools, regardless of residence. In fact this principle is incorporated in the municipal university code of Ohio, but is not followed at Akron or Toledo, where little or no distinction is made in the matter of fees between the College of Liberal Arts and the professional schools, tuition to residents being free at both. However, it should be noted that even residents at Akron are required to pay maintenance fees of fifty dollars annually. At Detroit and at Wichita resident students pay a tuition fee of seventy-five

[2] These figures are contained in a letter dated Nov. 17, 1926, from President M. L. Brittain.

dollars. Undoubtedly the tendency is growing to increase charges to local students, whether under the name of incidental, maintenance, or tuition fee. At the same time the tuition charge made to non-resident students has followed the general college tuition curve of the country upward and is now in most municipal universities fully as great as in private institutions. The reason for these increases is not hard to find. Generally speaking there is a definite legal limit beyond which cities may not tax themselves for university purposes, and in most cases this limit has already been reached. At the same time, all of the municipal universities are growing very rapidly. Since each new student is an added liability in the sense that he spells additional expense, it is but natural that these institutions must turn to the students themselves for additional income. Thus the student may eventually be called upon to pay as much, or nearly as much tuition, in our public institutions as in our private ones, and the contribution of the city or state, instead of providing free tuition, will serve to make up the difference between student tuition and actual student cost, a difference which is met in the private institution by income from endowment. With the increasing inability of the private colleges to receive all who apply, this tendency is a perfectly natural one, and we shall perhaps gradually cease to regard the state and city as the givers of a free college education and regard them more in the light of benefactors who, by their contributions, makes an expensive training available at part cost.

Gifts from private sources are by no means unknown to the municipal university. Quite recently (1924) the University of Louisville received the sum of $250,000 for the foundation of the Speed Scientific School. Cin-

cinnati has received private gifts amounting to many millions for both buildings and endowment. Both Cincinnati and Akron have established Endowment Fund Associations in the form of private corporations for the purpose of receiving and holding gifts to the university. In Cincinnati where the plan has been in force for many years, this Association holds nearly a million dollars worth of funds. As a matter of fact the municipal university must in general depend for money for capital outlay upon private gifts or upon city bond issues. In New York, to be sure, such outlay has often been financed from current revenues, but in smaller cities this is usually impossible. Louisville, as already stated, recently authorized a bond issue of $1,000,000 for its university, and Cincinnati has considerably exceeded this sum. Unfortunately the Ohio law provides that the payments for bonds shall correspondingly decrease the amounts available annually for current revenue, so that bond issues have been infrequent at the Ohio universities in recent years, with a consequent result of bad overcrowding for which as yet no remedy has been found.

The growth of a typical municipal university may be exemplified by tables published for the University of Akron, covering the time since its inauguration as a public institution.[3]

While the growth in attendance here has been unusually fast, due to the great development of the rubber industry in Akron and the consequent increase in population, the picture is rivalled at most of the other municipal universities. Two of them, namely the College of the City of New York and the University of Cincinnati, rank well up in size with the largest higher

[3] Annual Report of the President for 1925, pp. 4-5.

GROWTH OF THE UNIVERSITY (AKRON)

Academic

Academic Year	Enrollment for the Year: Day-time Students	Evening and Extension Students	Summer Session Students	Total Student Enrollment	Faculty Members (full time only)	Number of Daytime Students per Faculty Member
1913-14 ...	198			198	23	8.6
1914-15 ...	249			249	26	9.5
1915-16 ...	283	105		388	27	10.5
1916-17 ...	298	447		745	27	11.0
1917-18 ...	303	303		606	28	10.8
1918-19 ...	454	373		827	31	14.6
1919-20 ...	510	509		1019	32	15.9
1920-21 ...	555	449		1004	35	15.9
1921-22 ...	788	1087	221	2096	45	17.5
1922-23 ...	899	1124	332	2355	49	18.3
1923-24 ...	1004	1151	359	2514	55	18.3
1924-25 ...	1068	996	325	2389	56	19.0

Financial

Calendar Year	Total University Expenditures [1]	Tax rate [2] for University in thousandths of a mill	Estimated City Tax Duplicate from which income was derived	Annual Student per capita cost [3]
1914	$ 66,554.13	500	$105,612,390	$310.00
1915	73,367.99	550	118,757,530	282.00
1916	74,577.54	439	132,614,910	235.00
1917	83,392.76	490	144,710,200	248.00
1918	97,922.08	420	230,405,200	220.00
1919	120,682.70	380	256,626,840	265.00
1920	145,654.30	380	277,458,840	264.00
1921	181,534.29	460	349,841,810	239.26
1922	193,675.63	475	350,196,260	207.12
1923	213,887.08	550	317,816,080	204.55
1924	229,891.50	550	316,805,610	205.64
1925	245,107.93	550	317,582,860	204.74

[1] From 70 to 80 per cent of this sum is derived from taxation.
[2] The maximum rate possible is 550 thousandths of a mill.
[3] This cost is determined by dividing the annual operating expense for educational purposes by the average number of students for the year, reduced to the basis of full-time students.

institutions of the United States, either public or private. Hunter College is the largest college for

women in the country in point of attendance. In standing also the condition of the municipal universities is satisfactory. Eight are members of their regional accrediting associations and four have a place on the accepted list of the Association of American Universities.

The legal obstacle to the foundation of future municipal universities in states which are at present without them is a negative rather than a positive one. No state specifically prohibits the existence of such institutions, but only a few have passed legislation authorizing their establishment. For those states which have no such law in existence, there are three possibilities of procedure: the granting of a university charter to an individual city, as in Kentucky, South Carolina, and, originally, in New York; the extension of the code for junior colleges, already existent in a number of states, to include full college work, as already accomplished in Michigan; and, finally, the adoption of a full municipal university code, as in Ohio and Kansas. The second method is, as already stated, the most fruitful in possibility, and it is probably from the junior colleges that the initiative for future municipal universities will eventually come.

CHAPTER V

The Junior College and the City

There seems to be one basic point of similarity between the forces which brought the municipal universities into existence and those which underlie the development of the junior colleges. This may be defined as the desire for college work at home. In other particulars, such as time of origin, type of location, purpose, control, etc., there are essential differences which cannot be ignored by those who would carelessly confuse the two movements.

While the beginnings of the municipal university go back to the middle ages and, in our own country, are contemporary with the establishment of the state universities, the junior college is a product of the last two or three decades. Brush finds the first traces in the latter part of the last century: [1]

> For convenient reference a brief historical resumé of these earlier movements may be introduced. President James, of the University of Illinois, appears to have been the pioneer. In the early eighties he made an unsuccessful attempt to interest the authorities of the University of Pennsylvania in a plan similar to the present development. Almost simultaneously, the University of Michigan tried to differentiate between the first two years and the last two of the undergraduate course by giving upper-classmen

[1] H. R. Brush, The Junior College and the Universities, School & Society, September 2, 1916, p. 357 ff.

a chance to specialize along the lines of major and minor work, requiring in this event a thesis for graduation. Something of the same sort was in vogue in Western Reserve prior to 1896. President Harper's experiment in affiliating certain colleges with the University of Chicago is probably familiar to many. In its original form it was abandoned by the present administration because it failed to come up to expectations. A new phase of cooperation began about twenty years ago when the East Side High School of Saginaw, Mich., offered postgraduate work to some of its students and passed them on into advanced standing in the state university. This practise was discontinued and the first school to support the idea permanently was the township high school of Joliet, Ill., which, about fifteen years ago, cautiously expanded the high school to cover two years of college work under the guidance of qualified instructors. This was given partial recognition at first by neighboring institutions and has now been accepted fully as the graduates justified themselves.

Koos [2] finds that the period of rapid development of the public junior college began in 1915, and that at least forty-five or fifty were in existence by 1923. All of these were the outgrowth of public high schools and in this respect differ from the municipal universities, with the exception of Detroit and, perhaps, the College of the City of New York. But not all of the public junior colleges are of municipal origin. A considerable number are maintained at state expense in connection with other state schools or by supplementary state subsidy, as in California. This plan of support finds no parallel in the municipal university field. Finally may be mentioned the private junior colleges, which are numerically predominant. Perhaps here may be found a certain relationship to the municipal uni-

[2] Leonard V. Koos, The Junior College Movement, *op. cit.*, p. 4.

versity, at least in the original situation from which some examples of the two types have sprung. A college weak in resources but strong in local service might, if its situation were favorable, choose one of two alternatives: either the surrender of its property to the city, as the basis of a municipal university, or the reduction of its offerings to a two-year course; that is, it might become a public four-year college or a private junior college. In the larger cities such as Cincinnati, Toledo and Akron, and even in some smaller ones such as Charleston and Wichita, the choice was for a municipal university, because here the public wealth, attendant upon urban situation, made such a course possible. But a study of the list of junior colleges in the United States [3] will show that few of these institutions are so located in large cities that this opportunity was open to them. Consequently we may not indulge in the belief that development in the direction of either the municipal university or the junior college was a haphazard proceeding. It seems to have been in most cases dependent upon such surrounding circumstances as location, strength of denominational affiliation, existence of necessary legislation, personal initiative, etc., and perhaps the strongest of all these determining factors was urban location.

In purpose the municipal university and the junior college are by no means entirely comparable. Koos,[4] in his excellent table analyzing the purposes of the junior college, shows that, according to statements of educational literature, the four leading purposes are: popularizing higher education; continuing home influence during immaturity; offering two years of work acceptable to colleges and universities; and providing

[3] See Appendix D.

[4] *Op. cit.*, p. 21.

occupational training of junior college grade. The municipal university, it is true, does serve to popularize higher education, and it does render the continuance of home influence possible. But it is not organized primarily for pre-professional work nor for preparation for entrance to the upper classes of the arts college of another university. It does not, for the most part, offer two-year vocational courses, but gives some attention rather to preparation for the professions. In short the junior college is still largely in purpose a preparatory school for higher training, while the municipal university may, and in most cases does, prepare directly for life. Nor can the junior college emphasize as strongly as the municipal university its active participation in urban affairs, as expressed through various forms of civic cooperation and through training for citizenship and for public service.

In the matter of control, the public junior colleges are, with the exception of those associated with state schools, all creations of public Boards of Education and are governed by these Boards. In this sense the junior college must be regarded as a part of a comprehensive system, rather than as a separate unit. Doubtless city junior colleges should be so governed and will continue to be so governed. But it is too early to know definitely as yet whether the junior college which is expanded into a four-year collegiate unit should continue to function under the control of the same Board which governs the public school system. While it is true that Detroit has recently adopted such a plan and is said even to be contemplating its extension, New York has entirely abandoned this system in favor of an independent and separate governing Board for its higher institutions. Also, no other existing municipal university is under

the direct control of a Board of Education. Perhaps in the variation in the essential nature of the two types of institutions there is something inherent which makes a difference in the principle of control necessary.

Mention has just been made of the fact that few junior colleges, and fewer *public* junior colleges, are located in the larger cities. This statement and the reasons for the facts underlying it, are worthy of consideration. Examination of the list of junior colleges contained in Appendix D shows that of the total of 162 [5] listed by the Bureau of Education only 14 are to be found in cities of more than 100,000 population. They are:

Crane (Public) Junior College.....Chicago, Ill.
Sacred Heart Junior College.....Louisville, Ky.
(Public) Junior College.....Grand Rapids, Mich.
Concordia College.....St. Paul, Minn.
(Public) Junior College of K. C..Kansas City, Mo.
St. Teresa College.....Kansas City, Mo.
The Principia.....St. Louis, Mo.
Columbia University.....Portland, Oreg.
St. Mary's College.....Portland, Oreg.
Le Moyne Junior College.....Memphis, Tenn.
Ward-Belmont School.....Nashville, Tenn.
St. Mary's College.....Dallas, Tex.
Westmoorland College.....San Antonio, Tex.
Westminster College.....Salt Lake City, Utah

Only three of these are public junior colleges. The rest are privately controlled, four being institutions of the Catholic church. From these facts it is evident that the American junior college to-day is not primarily an urban institution. That is, it exists more generally in

[5] Of this total number 37 are municipal institutions and 11 are state colleges.

the smaller cities, towns and villages than in the greater centers of population. The reasons for this are not far to seek. In fact they have been in part already mentioned. The large city is not content, for the most part, with founding only a junior college. Like Cincinnati or Toledo it has had a public supported urban university for many years or, like Detroit it desires to expand its two-year college into a four-year one. Perhaps it is already the site of a great state institution like the Ohio State University at Columbus, or of a privately controlled university such as Yale at New Haven. In fact there are but few cities of more than 100,000 people in the United States to-day without a recognized four-year college, either publicly or privately supported.[6]

Where a good private institution already exists, there is but little incentive to establish a public junior college,[7] except perhaps in the largest centers, as for example in the Chicago district, which supports no state or municipal university. With the tide of popular favor so definitely turned toward urban college education as it is to-day, the private college in the large city is not faced by the same difficulties of existence as is its sister institution in the smaller towns and the country districts. Students are geographically near at hand and the wealth of the community finds a natural outlet in endowment of a local institution. This is an addi-

[6] The chief examples are: Bridgeport, Conn.; Wilmington, Del.; Fall River and New Bedford, Mass.; Grand Rapids, Mich.; Kansas City, Mo.; Camden, Jersey City, Paterson and Trenton, N. J.; Albany and Yonkers, N. Y.; Youngstown, O.; Reading, Pa.; Norfolk, Va.

[7] The principles of procedure in locating such an institution are well summarized in "Planning a Public Junior College," by F. P. O'Brien, American Educational Digest, November 1925, p. 99. See also "The Establishment of a Junior College," by the same author, University of Kansas Studies in Education, Vol. I, No. 2, October, 1923.

tional reason for the existence of so few private junior colleges in large cities. It is, generally speaking, the small colleges of smaller communities rather than those of the large cities which have wisely chosen by reason of poverty to become good junior colleges rather than poor four-year institutions. Most of the private junior colleges in large cities therefore are outgrowths of private secondary schools, academies, boarding schools, etc., often under church control.

The fact that only a few public junior colleges are located in the larger cities is a factor which must be taken into consideration in any prediction of the coming growth of the municipal university movement from a junior college basis. It is true, as already emphasized, that the municipal university's future is largely dependent on the development of junior colleges. But it may be predicted with considerable certainty that this growth will come gradually rather than immediately. It will not come until the junior college movement has extended to more large cities than it now includes, or until the many smaller cities which now have junior colleges increase in population and wealth to the point at which they are able to support a four-year institution. But while this development may be slow for the immediate future it is no less certain of ultimate accomplishment.

It would be wrong to assume that the expansion of the junior college is *always* to result in the municipal university. In California is to be found an instance of the absorption of several junior colleges by the establishment of a branch of the state university. Proctor says:[8]

[8] William M. Proctor, Recent Developments in the Junior College Situation in California, School & Society, June 14, 1924, p. 692.

At one time or another, since the beginning of the junior college movement in California, 35 districts have reported the organization of such institutions. Thirteen of these are not functioning at present. Three of the discontinued junior colleges were absorbed by the erection of the Southern Branch of the University of California out of what was formerly the Los Angeles Normal School. These were located at Hollywood, Long Beach and Los Angeles, and enrolled about one half of the students reported as attending junior colleges in 1919.

This of course is an unusual instance and is scarcely likely to be often repeated. The attitude of the state university however is an important factor in the development of the urban junior college and in its possible extension into a four-year institution. Concerning this the University of California says: [9]

The attitude of the university to the junior college movement in California is thoroughly friendly and sympathetic, but this attitude is not unconditional. The university is glad to see junior colleges established in communities possessing the population and the financial resources that will make possible the development of institutions of high quality; and, on the other hand, the university would view with regret any proposal to establish a junior college in a region of small population and small wealth.

This feeling of friendly cooperation is characteristic of the attitude of other state universities, as well, in states where the junior college system flourishes. But when the question of the expansion of the junior college into a four-year institution is raised, the feeling of the University of California, as expressed by its President,[10] is by no means so favorable:

[9] University of California Bulletin, Third Series, Vol. XX, No. 7, January, 1927, p. XIII.

[10] *Op. cit.*, p. XV.

It would not be difficult to recognize a few disadvantages of the junior college system. I am going to mention only one. A very great objection to the system resides in the fact that the presence of a junior college in one of our far western cities seems to be a temptation to certain people and certain organizations to develop it into a local four-year state college of liberal arts. I am opposed to the development of any junior college into a four-year degree-granting college, primarily because that would be against the best interests of higher education in the whole state of California, against the best interests of our bright and ambitious young men and young women of the future, no matter in what part of the commonwealth they may live.

President Campbell supports this statement by a number of reasons which may be summarized as follows:

1. Danger of unwise multiplication of four-year state colleges.
2. Doubt of state's ability to support eventually colleges which might be started by purely local financial support.
3. Probability of weak institutions being developed.
4. Lack of proper atmosphere and of association with fellow students from a distance.
5. Desirability of development of students by education away from home.
6. Good opportunities for self-support and financial assistance at Berkeley.
7. Development of four-year colleges would weaken junior college system.
8. The *best* colleges are none too good for students.

There is undoubtedly much wisdom in this view-

point, for a multiplication of state-supported institutions has already proved itself undesirable in many states. But there seems to be a tendency to neglect or confuse the real issue, namely the question of the proper placing of responsibility for the local public college. If public four-year colleges are coming to be more and more a general requirement in large urban communities, shall the support of these be regarded as a state or city function? Public urban high schools are generally maintained in large part by city taxation. This is rendered desirable by their universal occurrence in all cities. They belong to the city and their welfare is a city responsibility. When higher education began to be recognized as a public function it was not generally necessary to establish more than one or two public universities in each state. The numbers of students in attendance did not warrant a more comprehensive program. Hence it was natural that the state should be regarded as the proper supporter of such centralized undertakings. But we are to-day face to face with a new condition. Higher education is being popularized in much the same manner as was secondary education several decades ago. The public state university can no longer everywhere be considered adequate to meet local requirements. Inevitably the urban communities are going to extend their free educational system to cover the two-year and, in case of the larger cities, the four-year college and the university. In cities which have no private colleges this development will be more rapid, but it is safe to predict that it will eventually become common to all the larger cities. There is no reason to believe that the state will in the end have to take over the support of public, city-supported higher institutions, as inferred by President

Campbell.[11] Certainly the history of the municipal universities and the public junior colleges to date gives little, if any, support to such an assumption.

Thus, indirectly, urban influence may be destined to exert a powerful effect not only upon the college in the city but upon the state university as well. It would be ridiculous to fear that this influence will be an unfavorable one. At present the attendance at public urban higher institutions of all types is not great enough to affect in any appreciable degree the increasing numbers who want to go to college. Hence the state institutions continue to grow in an amazing manner. It is quite unlikely that the prestige which they enjoy will ever be diminished by the increase of city colleges. But it is entirely possible to foresee a time when the number of *undergraduate* college students in city institutions will outnumber the undergraduate students in the state institutions of any given state. In Ohio already, a state with three municipal universities, but with no public junior colleges, the attendance of undergraduate arts college students at the municipal universities for 1925-26 was 2494 as compared with 2224 at the Ohio State University, the leading state institution. If eventually the function of undergraduate teaching should devolve in increasing measure upon local colleges in cities, it must be remembered that the state university must continue to provide for the non-urban students in this particular and must serve the entire population, excepting perhaps the largest cities, for professional and graduate work.

In summarization of what has been said, a number

[11] *Op. cit.*, p. 15: "Some of these local colleges might start out upon purely local financial support, but there is no question that within a few years the state would be called upon to support them. . . ."

of conclusions may be drawn: the American junior college to-day is a product of the smaller community rather than of the large city. It is therefore not an urban manifestation in the sense in which this word has been used hitherto.[12] The reason for this is that most of the larger cities are already provided with public or private four-year colleges. Hence the growth of future municipal universities from existing junior colleges will be a gradual one, depending chiefly upon increase of population in the smaller cities. It is possible that, through multiplication of junior colleges and municipal universities eventually a public urban system of undergraduate higher education may be built up, approaching the present urban secondary school system in extent. This development would modify the present function of the state university, but would probably not destroy its leadership or prestige.

[12] Namely, in reference to cities of more than 100,000 people.

CHAPTER VI

Adult Education in the Urban Institutions

It is not the purpose of this work to discuss the great subject of adult education in the United States. That field is so broad in scope, so diversified in character, so continually productive of new development, that no satisfactory work of comprehensive historical and descriptive character has, as yet, been written about it, though several attempts have been made. The world has for centuries regarded education as intended primarily for the adolescent. Hence all of our conceptions of education have been based upon this assumption of its character. As a result the extension of its sphere to include the adult has had to be accompanied by a readjustment of educational theory and practice. But the education of the adolescent was a reasonably simple, formalized process, varying not greatly with the individual. Its content was, as least in part, determined by certain basic requirements in elementary subjects necessary for the most important relations of human association. Its ultimate goal and its period of duration were definitely standardized. Even its processes and methods, while subject to occasional change, were determined by the practice of the majority. With such orderly educational systems and models as our standards of comparison, we seem to stand on the brink of a disordered and tempestuous ocean when we regard the uncharted wastes of what is nowadays designated "adult education."

Primarily, it is the extent of the efforts at adult education and their diversity which amaze us. Keppel [1] believes that more than three million adults in the United States are at present carrying on some type of study. Naturally a host of agencies is engaged in teaching them. Public schools, universities, lyceums, chautauquas, correspondence schools, libraries, museums, summer schools, social settlements, Y. M. C. A. and Y. W. C. A. organizations—these are only a few of the many interests involved. As has so often been said, education has ceased to be merely a preparation for life and has become a part of life itself. Thus adult education may be broadly defined as any effort to give systematic training to those who are not primarily students, *i.e.,* those whose main interest and occupation is the earning of a livelihood, rather than formal study. Such education may be purely cultural or it may be vocational (or professional). It may be directed toward individual betterment, toward class betterment, or it may be purely recreative in nature. Peers,[2] with great wisdom, says:

We must take our stand upon one fundamental assumption, that is, the assumption that the process of education includes the idea of growth, and that education must, therefore, by its very nature, be opposed to any process which imposes limits on freedom of growth and aims at a purely mechanistic organization of society from which the idea of future change will be excluded. Moreover, education must be many-sided; for only when there is variety of interest and free interchange of thought can there be intel-

[1] F. P. Keppel, Adult Education, Today and Tomorrow. Address at Chautauqua, N. Y., Aug. 18, 1926.

[2] Robert Peers, Some Applications of Educational Theory to Adult Education, The Journal of Adult Education, Vol. I, No. 1, Sept., 1926, p. 46.

lectual growth and progressive social development. Merely to impose upon people a rigid set of ideas, with a view to the attainment of a specific end, cannot properly be described as education at all, in any real sense of the term. This does not exclude all specific education in the field of social effort; but it should be remembered that social change depends ultimately not merely upon specific acts, but also upon the degree of adaptability of the members of the social group, and this depends upon general rather than specific education.

The history of early adult education is interesting to us as a background upon which the participation of the colleges and universities may be traced. To him who desires to study the subject in some detail, the recent works of Hart,[3] Pfeffer[4] and Hall-Quest[5] are recommended. For our purpose it will suffice to mention some of the main manifestations of the earlier period. As in England, the desire for knowledge was rife among the working classes even in the eighteenth century. Institutes, lyceums, forums and societies sprang up in various localities where the unlearned, both adolescent and adult, might exercise the mind and receive a more or less formal instruction. Hall-Quest[6] calls attention to the fact that "both in England and America university extension began with lectures in the field of physical science." While this is true of the later period of which he speaks, it is equally true that in the earlier period when universities had not yet entered the field of adult education in either coun-

[3] Joseph K. Hart, Adult Education, Thomas Y. Crowell Co., New York, 1927.
[4] Nathaniel Pfeffer, New Schools for Older Students, The MacMillan Co., New York, 1926.
[5] Alfred L. Hall-Quest, The University Afield, The MacMillan Co., New York, 1926.
[6] *Op. cit.*, p. 14.

try, the same physical sciences attracted the attention of workmen in both countries who were seeking education. Previous chapters have dealt with the rise of the Mechanics Institutes in England during the early part of the nineteenth century. While the United States has nothing exactly similar, it is interesting to compare with these the General Society of Mechanics and Tradesmen, organized in New York in 1790 with its Apprentices' Library, or the Franklin Institute of Philadelphia founded in 1824 by mechanics and others for the purpose of extending the knowledge of mechanical science. The entrance of the colleges upon the same field is a natural response to this clamor for knowledge on the part of the people and is, perhaps, one of the first manifestations of the willingness of higher education in America to adapt itself to the requirements of the surrounding population.

Primarily, it was not the already existing college of the period which unbent so far as to admit to its curriculum the newer physical sciences and their hosts of young and old devotees. As a matter of fact, the academies of the day responded more readily than the colleges. Powers [7] says:

> The development of the academy provided a fertile field for the extension of popular education in chemistry. It was in 1749 that Benjamin Franklin made public his proposal to establish an academy which would provide instruction in "those things which are likely to be most useful and ornamental." . . . Reference to curricula and advertising material published by the earlier schools shows that there were at least four academies which gave instruction in this branch of science (chemistry) previous to 1820; at least

[7] S. R. Powers, The Teaching of Chemistry in the early American Secondary Schools, School and Society, October 23, 1926.

fifteen that began such instruction not later than the period of 1820-29; and at least fourteen that began not later than the period of 1830-40.

In certain respects, particularly in the cities, these academies served a purpose somewhat similar to that of the Mechanics Institute of England, since in many cases both young and adult scholars were instructed. But the technical college was still unknown in the eighteenth century and the first quarter of the nineteenth century had drawn to its conclusion before such a one was established on a lasting basis.

The foundation of Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute in Troy, New York, in 1824 marks the beginning of an educational epoch. It owed its existence to Stephen Van Rensselaer of Albany who called it originally the Rensselaer School and dedicated it to the purpose of teaching the "application of science to the common purposes of life." [8] In a letter to Samuel Blatchford, dated Nov. 5, 1824, the founder said in part:

My principal object is, to qualify teachers for instructing the sons and daughters of farmers and mechanics, by lectures or otherwise, in the application of experimental chemistry, philosophy, and natural history, to agriculture, domestic economy, the arts and manufactures. From the trials which have been made by persons in my employment at Utica, Whitesborough, Rome, Auburn, and Geneva during the last summer, I am inclined to believe that competent instructors may be produced in the school at Troy, who will be highly useful to the community in the diffusion of a very useful kind of knowledge, with its application to the business of living. Apparatus for the necessary experiments has been so much simplified, and specimens in natural

[8] Palmer C. Ricketts, History of Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, pp. 7 ff, John Wiley and Sons, New York, 1914.

history have become subjects of such easy attainment, that but a small sum is now required as an outfit for an instructor in the proposed branch of science; consequently, every school district may have the benefit of such a course of instruction about once in two or three years, as soon as we can furnish a sufficient number of teachers.

These historic words deserve recognition as a sort of declaration of principles for our modern system of higher education. They are significant in several respects. They anticipate by half a century the formal institution of extension work as a system of education in the English and American university systems. They recognize the adult as worthy of educational effort on the part of the college and, finally, they represent the first effort on the part of any American college to establish the teaching of applied science as its chief function. On the foundation of these principles have been built a large part of America's material prosperity, an important division of modern educational practice, and, finally, that spirit of cooperation between college and community which is the essence of the urban university of to-day. What Birkbeck did for England, Van Rensselaer accomplished for the United States in a different form, for both of these men lived and thought in advance of their generation.

The formal organization of university extension, in America as in England, was not accomplished until the second half of the nineteenth century. Hall-Quest [9] finds its prototype in the lyceum and chautauqua movements of earlier origin. But however strong their suggestive influence may have been, the basic reason for at least one phase of such activity must be sought, as in England, in the increasing density of the popula-

[9] *Op. cit.*, p. 12.

tion and its concentration into urban centers. An additional incentive, which England lacked, existed in the growing number of public, state-supported colleges and universities and in the eagerness of these to find their true function and to justify their existence by a more universal type of service. It would be difficult to define university extension as it is understood in America by any brief formula. Certainly it is a very different thing from university extension as it is understood in England, since the American term is much more comprehensive in scope. Whatever it may mean in America, it certainly has reference primarily to university activities *off* the campus, *i.e.*, in other parts of the city in which the university is located, or in other cities or communities. There has been an unfortunate tendency on the part of many to include under the name "university extension" those university classes carried on in the evening, at the university plant, by urban institutions. For this latter type of work the Association of Urban Universities has informally adopted the title of "evening session" or "evening college," since it differs in no way from the classes of the day session, except in the matter of time of presentation. Offered by the same faculty, in the same class rooms and laboratories, it is generally accredited as fully equal to the work of the day session. Extension work off the campus on the other hand is so variable in form, content, and manner of presentation, that no very definite similarity of practice is to be found among the colleges in the matter of presentation or accrediting.[10]

For our purpose it is interesting to note the early

[10] See Proceedings of the National University Extension Association for 1924, Report of the Committee on Extension Practices.

efforts of the universities and colleges to extend their usefulness to the non-matriculated student. Prominent in this field is the name of Richard G. Moulton, a pioneer in extension work at the University of Cambridge, England, where he served as Extension Lecturer in literature from 1874 to 1890. Coming then to America he became active in the American Society for the Extension of University Teaching (organized in 1891), serving first as a lecturer in this organization and later (1892) as Professor of literature in the University of Chicago, where he introduced extension instruction as a definite part of the university's program. The activity of Moulton is particularly significant since he must be regarded as a living link between the efforts of his associate, James Stuart, the founder of extension work at Cambridge, and the early American attempts in the same field.[11] Generally speaking, university extension came to America nearly a score of years after its beginnings in England. Its introduction here was not due, as in England, to the century long struggle of the working classes for educational opportunity. In America there was no class barrier to participation in the regular curriculum of the university. While England had little opportunity for higher education, except at the aristocratic older universities, the United States had in 1890 nearly 400 colleges and universities open freely to workpeople. Besides there were in America a large number of private academies for secondary training and at least the beginning of a free public high school system. If the American workman demanded extension training, he demanded it in quite

[11] Hall-Quest (*op. cit.*, p. 13) calls attention to the fact that the English university extension movement was first presented to an American audience (the American Library Association) in 1887 by Prof. Herbert B. Adams, of Johns Hopkins University.

another humor and with quite another purpose than his English brother.

The influence of the cities upon university extension is reasonably apparent to even the casual observer. The location of a great part of the formal instruction in such a program must necessarily be determined by density of population, hence the university extension class flourishes especially in the cities, towns and villages. Many of the subjects studied are purely cultural in nature, but a large number are vocational and peculiarly adapted to the conditions of urban life. A list follows, based upon the offerings of colleges and universities holding membership in the National University Extension Association. Most of them are state institutions and, while few are urban in location, the majority extend their service to the cities in their states or surrounding territories. The influence of an urban constituency upon even non-urban universities will be apparent from the list on page 186.

Equally significant for the study of the urban influence upon university extension is a list of activities in what Dean L. E. Raber of the University of Wisconsin has called informal service: [12]

In the list of informal instruction and service lines, a survey of the literature reveals the following: Lectures, both singly and in series; lyceum courses; general radio broadcasting, including lectures and entertainment features; package library service; visual education service, including the distribution of films, slides, art collections, exhibits and stereographs (some of this material is used for entertainment features, but a large part of it is educational and informational); general information service, including the

[12] Proc. National University Extension Association, Madison, Wis., 1924, p. 27 (quoted by Selby).

Courses Offered in Class Centers[13]

1. Advertising
2. Anthropology
3. Archaeology
4. Architecture
5. Armenian
6. Art
7. Astronomy
8. Banking and finance
9. Biology
10. Botany
11. Business administration
12. Business law
13. Celtic
14. Chemistry
15. Chinese
16. Commerce
17. Commercial education
18. Corporation finance
19. Cost accounting
20. Dentistry
21. Drawing
22. Economics
23. Education
24. Engineering
25. English
26. Factory manufacturing
27. Finance
28. Fine arts
29. French
30. Geography
31. Geology
32. German
33. Government
34. Greek
35. Health
36. Health education
37. Hebrew
38. History
39. Household arts
40. Household science
41. Hygiene
42. Indo-Iranian
43. Industrial management
44. Italian
45. Japanese
46. Journalism
47. Law
48. Library economy
49. Mathematics
50. Medicine
51. Money and banking
52. Music
53. Nature study
54. Neurology
55. Oriental seminary
56. Paidology
57. Personality analysis
58. Philosophy
59. Phonetics
60. Physical education
61. Physical science
62. Physics
63. Physiology
64. Political science
65. Portuguese
66. Psychiatry
67. Psychology
68. Public speaking
69. Real estate
70. Rhetoric
71. Rumanian
72. Salesmanship
73. Scandinavian
74. Selling and advertising
75. Semitics
76. Siamese
77. Slavonic
78. Social science
79. Sociology
80. Spanish
81. Speech
82. Surgery
83. Zoology

answering of inquiries and questions of various groups and individuals throughout the State; women's club work; conducting high-school debating leagues; high-school athletic associations; school and community drama service; school and community music-service; bulletin service; contests in literary and other events; school service; especially rural service; welfare week-ends; the conducting of Good Roads essay contests; health service; special fair exhibits; workers' education; technical service; library extension service other than package library service; debate and public discussion outside of, or in addition to, high-school service in this line;

[13] From Bulletin, 1926, No. 5, U. S. Bureau of Education on General University Extension, p. 7, by Thomas H. Selby.

Government research or municipal reference bureau; service to women's clubs in assisting in the organization and extension of activities; play and recreation service; community institutes; community center aids; surveys (economic, social, and school); short graduate medical courses; assistance in community organization and improvement; assistance in problems of rural economy and sociology; surveys, information, etc., on community and industrial relations; high-school visitation; music extension; fostering bible study in high schools; forestry extension service; engineering extension service; citizenship education; retail salesmanship, including short courses and institutes on business.[14]

We may turn now to the purely urban type of institution represented in the membership of the Association of Urban Universities in order to gain some idea of the form which higher education for the adult has assumed in the cities of the United States. The most important manifestation is to be found in the amazing development of the evening session during the last two decades. As has already been said, the evening session of an urban institution must not be confused with the extension work of a college or university offering classes off the campus. In the former case the location, faculty, administrative supervision, laboratory and class room facilities, and entrance and graduation requirements are usually identical with those of the day session. Usually also the work of the two sessions is identical and interchangeable. In the larger cities, and particularly where the night high school system exists, the evening session of the university or college is developed to the extent of furnishing the entire course for the degree. Naturally the day high schools are also

[14] Bulletin, 1926, No. 5, U. S. Bureau of Education, p. 4.

sources of supply for the evening session as well as for the day session, since many high school graduates find it necessary to go to work during the daytime. But unquestionably the existence of night high schools is a stimulating element in the formation of collegiate evening sessions. In a great city like New York the night high school is an important factor and enrolls thousands of students. In the Borough of Brooklyn alone there are now in operation eight evening high schools with a total registration of more than 13,000 students.

The sources from which college evening session pupils are recruited form an interesting study. In large part, as already indicated, these students are recent high school graduates who find it impossible for financial reasons to attend the day session. Their average age is somewhat greater than that of the corresponding day session attendants, since often a period of one or more years intervenes between high school graduation and college entrance. A somewhat more mature type is found in those who have gained an established position and desire some special knowledge to aid them in advancement. Here may be classed the students taking teacher-training courses at night, for the greater part already regular teachers in elementary and secondary schools. To the technical evening courses come the employees of industry who desire either specially adapted work or courses leading to a technical degree. A considerable proportion of these, as well as of the teachers, already hold an arts college diploma. Chancellor Brown of New York University refers to the training of the types already mentioned as "reeducation." He says: [15]

[15] Elmer Ellsworth Brown, Report of the Chancellor of New York University, 1925-26, p. 35.

We have come by degrees to recognize a certain type which is everywhere to be found in commercial and industrial life; namely, that of the man whose education has not come up to the level of his native abilities—the undereducated man. His case calls for attention rather than that of the overeducated. It is a serious matter for the industries, where men of ability are in demand but cannot be of the greatest use unless their training matches their talent. It is a still more serious matter for the undereducated man himself, who comes upon responsibilities and opportunities which are not beyond his natural powers but are beyond the scope of his education. These are not confined to his economic life, but reach out into his wider relations, as citizen and fellow man.

In all the types mentioned above, the vocational or professional element is the determining factor in adult education. This is the distinctively urban side of the development, for only in large communities are such students to be found in sufficient numbers to warrant evening session classes of this kind. It is a phenomenon distinctively American in nature and dependent upon our peculiarly democratic social and economic organization. As has been previously shown, this type of work is hardly to be found at all in the evening session offerings of the English or the German universities. But it would be wrong to assume that it is the only kind of evening work found in our own urban institutions. As a matter of fact, the liberal subjects are perhaps just as abundant in the evening as in the day curriculum. Throughout the country, thousands of persons are pursuing evening courses for the arts college degree without thought of any vocational purpose. Were this not the case it would be a serious indictment of the value of the arts college system, which could

then be regarded only as an institution for adolescent training. Fortunately we have a large number of adult students in the United States who find life itself in study rather than merely an instrument with which to earn a living. And so, in the evening as well as in the day session, the arts college maintains its place as the central unit around which our higher education is builded.

The collegiate evening session is a product of the twentieth century and is unquestionably the distinctive contribution of the urban institution to higher education in America. Originally much prejudice was manifest in academic circles against any type of evening work. It was felt that such offerings must of necessity be of low grade, since their pursuit was not the main interest of the students engaged. The lax enforcement of entrance requirements in early years often brought to such courses a hopelessly mixed class of students, of various degrees of preparation, and the resulting mortality was not encouraging to the best effort. Gradually it was seen by the stronger colleges that evening work must be carried on with the same requirements as day work, if success were to be attained. As a result of a sort of process of reformation, evening session classes on the campus have been purged of lax methods and procedure, and have gained an academic respectability which is nowadays practically never questioned. Remnants of the old feeling are however still to be found in the hostile attitude of certain professional organizations toward the accrediting of professional night schools—an attitude which, by reason of other contributing factors, is perhaps not entirely unjustified. In a very few institutions even today, evening session students are not allowed to receive

the degree without a year's participation in day sessions, but such instances are rare, and it is becoming more and more generally recognized that students who are willing to spend from eight to ten or even twelve years in evening study for the degree are worthy of its award.

The numbers engaged in such work are surprising to those who have not followed closely this new and important phase of college work. The table on pages 192 and 193 gives the enrollment in thirty-one typical urban institutions (all members of the Association of Urban Universities) for the first semester of the year 1926-1927.

The combined college-grade, evening-session registration of the institutions listed above amounts to nearly 60,000 students. When it is remembered that a number of the largest and most important urban institutions (and many smaller ones) are not here included, it becomes apparent that the total number of such students in the United States must be very large indeed; perhaps 100,000 would not be an excessive estimate. In this case, it is apparent that the evening-session movement has reached a stage where its student body is from 10% to 15% of the size of the regularly enrolled day student numbers. No more striking example could be given of urban influence upon American higher education.

REGISTRATION OF COLLEGE-GRADE STUDENTS IN THE EVENING SESSIONS OF URBAN UNIVERSITIES

First Semester 1926-1927

Institution	Total registration of college grade evening students	Evening secondary education in city?	Entire work for college degree given in evening session?
Boston University	3484	yes	yes (a)
The College of the City of New York	7025	yes	yes
Hunter College of the City of New York	6429	yes	yes
Johns Hopkins University	240	yes	yes (b)
University of Akron	847	yes	no
Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.	3578	yes	yes
Temple University, Philadelphia, Pa.	3000	yes	yes (c)
Toledo University	430	yes	yes (d)
University of Buffalo	424	yes	yes
University of Cincinnati	392	yes	no (e)
University of Pennsylvania	2197	yes	no
Washington University, St. Louis, Mo.	2199	yes (f)	(g)
Case School of Applied Science	(No evening courses—collaborates with Western Reserve in their evening work.)		
Clark University, Worcester, Mass.	31	yes	no
Drexel Institute, Philadelphia, Pa.	1040	yes	no
University of Denver	675	yes	no
University of Rochester	724	yes	yes (h)
Syracuse University	2000 (approx.)	(i)	(j)
Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tenn.	(no evening courses)		
Western Reserve University, Cleveland	2080	yes	yes
Ohio State University, Columbus	One three-hour teachers course given—only. Others are seminars open only to graduates—preparatory work obtainable in city.		

Institution	Total registration of college grade evening students	Evening secondary education in city?	Entire work for college degree given in evening session?
Harvard University	1420	yes	yes
University of Minnesota, Minneapolis	(k)	yes	yes (k)
Hamline University, St. Paul	(no evening courses)		
George Washington University	2988	yes	yes
Evansville College, Evansville	220 (1′)	yes (1″)	no
Carnegie Institute of Technology	705	yes	yes (m)
Wittenberg College, Springfield, Ohio	355	yes	yes (m)
Municipal University of Wichita	8	no (n′)	no (n″)
New York University	8496	yes	yes
Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn	1225	yes	yes

(a) In the college of Business Administration only.
(b) Only in College for Teachers.
(c) Only the degree of B. S. in Education.
(d) Possible, but very difficult.
(e) But a student is able to obtain a degree by taking in addition late afternoon or Saturday morning classes.
(f) But very few lead to high school graduation.
(g) While arrangement is made for entire work, no student is given the degree without one year in residence at day college.
(h) But seldom done as most of students are in advanced standing.
(i) A few offered, but no complete program.
(j) Possible but not probable, because time required would make it almost prohibitive.
(k) No figures available,—about five to six thousand registered, but do not know how many are of college grade. Practically, it takes in addition to evening work, a year of residence in day. Theoretically, all work is given.
(1′) Work is given in late afternoon.
(1″) Mostly for industrial courses, do not know how many count courses for high school graduation.
(m) By combining with evening work, Saturday and summer courses, it is possible to get degree.
(n′) Courses given in high school but not for credit.
(n″) Not at present, though if late afternoon classes were included most of work would be given.

CHAPTER VII

The American Workman and Higher Education

The relation of the working classes to higher education is of course by no means a purely urban factor, since considerable numbers of workers, as, for example, miners, are often not residents of large cities. However the situation and attitude of the working class has been largely determined by the concentration of population. While agricultural workpeople have become the special interest of the state universities in their extension courses and agricultural colleges, urban institutions have found themselves increasingly involved with the conditions of the workers in the cities. Their call made upon these universities has been of triple nature. Primarily perhaps it has been a call to educate the adolescent sons and daughters of working parents. These young people, educated in public high schools, have shared the American tradition of higher education as a right, and have attended not only the free state universities, but also in growing numbers the local colleges in their native cities, whether these were publicly or privately controlled. To this course there have been no such barriers as might formerly be found in England. The democracy of our national life and of the public high school had already assured the children of workmen of their reception on equal terms, when they entered college. The wages of their parents usually sufficed to help maintain them during the process of

education or, if not, there was no shame in earning one's way through college, and chances to do this were plentiful. As a result no insurmountable problem has arisen in this particular branch of university service to the workingman, and no difficulty except that of proper expansion of educational facilities to care for growing numbers.

The second call of the worker has been for adult education and this, as indicated in the previous chapter, has been answered during the last few decades in a manner satisfactory to all except the more radical labor element. But the third call has been neither greatly pressed by the workmen nor generally answered by the universities. This is the call for a type of training in systems of political, economic and social science, believed by the workman to be peculiarly adapted to his needs and condition. As has already been seen, this problem is so weighty in England as to have become a factor in nearly all relations between the workpeople and the universities. While the establishment of the newer English universities has in a measure helped its solution for the adolescent, there is still an atmosphere of hidden warfare between the adherents of the tutorial class plan and those of the Labor Colleges. Such a strife is entirely unknown to the average citizen of the United States, and it is a safe conjecture to say that the great mass of American workingmen is quite satisfied to share the common schooling and higher education provided by the State for all alike. But that the English radical labor influence in education is not entirely without parallel in the United States will become apparent from what is to follow.[1]

[1] The author desires to express his indebtedness to two researches, already quoted: Margaret T. Hodgen, "Workers' Education in Eng-

The relation of the American colleges and universities to the education of workmen, as a class, offers but little tangible material for study. The earlier labor organizations were not inclined to look with favor on the college. The Knights of Labor, powerful during the last quarter of the nineteenth century, regarded the institutions for higher education as "the strongholds of privilege and anti-unionism." [2] This antagonism was evidently based upon a fundamental disagreement with the prevailing system of college teaching in economics. Most of the modern criticism of university autocracy may be traced back to this period for its origin. The attitude of the Knights of Labor toward universities was not greatly unlike the attitude of the English workman of the same period. But there were two vital differences in their respective situations. The English workman, with but rare exceptions, could not at that period, send his sons to Oxford or Cambridge. The American workman could, and in increasing numbers did, send his sons to scores of American colleges. In the second place the American workman at that time did not seriously demand opportunity for adult education for himself, while the English workman was deeply interested in securing such training.

Fortunately a more friendly relation between higher education and labor was initiated by the American Federation of Labor under the leadership of Samuel Gompers. The Federation has always urged equal educational opportunity and has therefore been a strong

land and the United States," E. P. Dutton & Co., New York, 1925, and Philip R. V. Curve, "Educational Attitudes and Policies of Organized Labor in the United States," Contributions to Education, No. 201, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926.

[2] Curve, *op. cit.*, p. 88.

advocate of the public colleges and universities. Generally speaking the controversial elements of the question have failed to assume the importance in this country which characterized the situation in England and which there led to the organization of a nation-wide system of cooperation between universities and workpeople in the extension and tutorial classes, and even to the establishment of new universities. While the earlier labor movements saw much of value for their cause in the vocational side of education, as is evidenced by the establishment in the United States of Mechanics' Institutes, said to be based upon the Scotch model, there was always a lurking undercurrent of fear that skill in production might become the subject of exploitation. Hence, as in England, there has always existed a deep faith in cultural education as a means of lifting not only the individual but also the whole class. However, the United States has no formal system of cooperation between Labor and higher education in any way comparable with the cooperative efforts of the Workers' Education Association of England. This does not mean that American labor and the American universities are mutually hostile and cannot agree, but that such agreement is already existent in the very nature of our national life, and that no formal organization is needed to promote what is already an accomplished fact.

As a result of the conditions just described, the efforts of American colleges to offer a specific kind of training for laboring people are almost negligible in scope and occurrence. So few are they, that the Workers' Education Year Book [3] lists only two such projects in connection with established colleges. In 1920 the

[3] Published by the Workers' Education Bureau, New York, 1924.

Trustees of Amherst College entered into a cooperative arrangement with the wage earners of two neighboring cities (Holyoke and Springfield) for the establishment in these cities of courses of liberal study. The organization in charge is somewhat like that of the Joint Committees for tutorial classes in England, since it contains representatives of both faculty and labor union. The class is practically autonomous in its own administration. Subjects studied have been: Current Social Problems, Industrial History, Labor Law and the Development of Labor Politics, Economic Problems and Human Resources, etc. The tuition fee is nominal and the expense is borne largely by the college. Members of the Amherst faculty are said to serve without compensation. The difference is evident between this sporadic, volunteer type of organization and the elaborate system of the English tutorial classes, supported by public subsidy.

Perhaps of more unique nature is the Summer School for Women Workers in Industry, organized in 1921 at Bryn Mawr College under the inspiration of President Emeritus M. Carey Thomas. Its plan of organization is also a joint arrangement between representatives of the college and of labor. The college lends its buildings and campus for two months each year. One hundred working women may be admitted annually. They must be more than twenty-one and less than thirty-five years of age and must have had an education including the completion of the eighth grade. Scholarships covering basic necessities and tuition are provided. Subjects of instruction include Modern Industrial Society, English Composition, Hygiene, Literature, History, Art, Elementary Science, Economics, Psychology, etc. At least one American uni-

versity, California,[4] carries on a Department of Labor Education which reported for the year twelve classes conducted in six cities of the State, with an enrollment of 500; also about fifty addresses on subjects pertaining to workers' education.[4]

The objectives of organized labor in America in seeking a special type of education are summed up by Dr. Harry Saidler as follows: [5]

> If the object of a workers' educational experiment were to give the worker greater power of enjoyment here and now; or to develop his ability to think fundamentally on social problems; or to help him to function more effectively as a citizen in the solution of social problems; or to equip him to fight effectively for immediate improvement in the conditions of labor; to train him as a leader in the trade union movement; to interpret to him his place in the scheme of things; to give impetus to his demand for a new order of society; to develop his sense of loyalty to his economic organization—if the aim were any one of these things—I believe that that aim would be a legitimate aim of workers' education.

The Year Book [6] believes that

> workers' education as it develops will be financed on workers' money, controlled (in the sense of policy) and managed (in the sense of administration) by workers' organizations. It is idle to debate whether workers' education can be controlled by others than the workers. It cannot be. Controlled by public authorities, by universities, by middle-class persons, it is adult education. It is education. It is useful. But it is not workers' education. Workers' education can no more be outside the labor movement than a trade

[4] University of California Bulletin, Third Series, Vol. XX, No. 7—Annual Report of the President for 1924-1925 and 1925-1926, p. 433.
[5] Quoted in Workers' Education Year Book, 1924, p. 4.
[6] *Op. cit.*, p. 4.

union. It is as definite an expression of the labor movement as the trade union.

Naturally the colleges cannot think in terms of this sort, and this is one reason why a distinctive type of "labor education" is so seldom found in them. An analysis of the situation as conceived by labor is presented by Margaret Hodgen,[7] who says:

> The public school and the universities have two things to offer the working-class student in his attempt to secure this new body of knowledge, namely physical equipment and teaching personnel. In many instances (although the exceptions are significant) the physical equipment has been offered and accepted. Workers' classes often meet on school and university premises. To obtain the intellectual and spiritual cooperation of faculties, however, is another matter. For the professional educator (again with certain exceptions) maintaine a doctrinaire attitude toward newcomers in the field of instruction and the idea of admitting working-class students or trade union officials into the councils of teachers and administrators is yet to be popular.

Evidently the difference between the English and American university situations is brought about by the fact that the English universities, originally not open to workpeople, have yielded to a pressure (which American labor has never had to use) and have met the workman halfway. The English workman on the other hand has sacrificed something of *his* class feeling and in the tutorial class system has worked out a give-and-take plan with the universities. Naturally an extreme element is to be found in both countries. In England it is represented by the Plebs League and the Labor Colleges. In American it is for the greater

[7] *Op. cit.*, p. 267.

part less hostile to the universities. Yet here as in England one result of the labor movement has been the formation of a purely labor agency to promote labor education. This is known in the United States as the Workers' Education Bureau of America, founded in 1921. This organization, while believing that "workers' education and the workers' movement are not separate, but a functional part one of another" [8] has maintained fairly friendly relations with the colleges and in this respect is comparable with the English Workers' Education Association. Its functions are defined as follows:

1. General Information
2. Educational Advice
3. Registry of Teachers
4. Publications
5. Cooperative Book Purchasing
6. Correspondence Department
7. Workers' Loan Library

But even in the Workers' Education Bureau the relation of the universities to workers' education has been a source of disagreement. Miss Hodgen says: [9]

It is generally recognized among working people that university professors are controlled by university authorities who are in turn controlled by trustees whose economic interests are diametrically opposed to those of the workers. "They feel that instructors cannot and will not give workers information which might be utilized by them—to weaken the power of those trustees. They are convinced that no one helps labor as much as labor itself." [10] They urge the W. E.

[8] Year Book, p. 33. [9] *Op. cit.*, p. 253.
[10] "Professor Egbert of Columbia and Labor Economics." Justice, June 2, 1922. (Quoted by Hodgen.)

B., therefore, to seek closer cooperation only with the Rand School and similar institutions.

Acting on these convictions, the W. E. B. in 1923 refused to allow the Extension Division of the University of California to affiliate. Subsequently, however, a joint committee composed of university teachers and representatives of the State Federation of Labor, with the latter in the majority, was formed. And an annual legislative appropriation of $10,000 was set aside for expenditure under an agreement which permitted the withdrawal of either party at any time. The committee employed as director of the work, a trade-unionist, who had previously worked under university direction, and the reorganized enterprise was granted W. E. B. affiliation.[11]

Evidently the reaction of the more radical labor element toward established education is the same in the United States as in England, though its influence in England is stronger. If such opinions as those quoted above are intended simply as appeals to class feeling, they may well be ignored. For if they are uttered in all sincerity, as is doubtless often the case, one cannot refrain from an expression of sympathy for the naïveté of mind which pictures the university professor as withholding from the workman-student priceless information which he alone commands and which would, if imparted, enable the workman by some miraculous process to emerge into a better economic and social state.

Certain purely labor enterprises in education deserve mention.[12] It is significant that all of these efforts are

[11] Extracted by Hodgen from A. J. Muste, "Workers' Education in the United States," Nation, Oct. 1, 1924, pp. 333-334.

[12] A full directory of trade union colleges, study classes, educational committees, affiliated state and local unions and other workers' educational enterprises in the United States may be found in the Workers' Education Year Book for 1924.

in the nature of adult education. As a matter of fact there seems to have been no attempt in England or America to institute a system of adolescent labor education. Though church school systems from the lowest grade through the university are common enough in the United States, labor has not as yet tried to institute a rival to the public schools of the land. Yet such an institution would be a logical enough development of the more radical labor theories of education and would doubtless be a potent weapon in emphasizing class distinctions. Fortunately, it is to be strongly doubted that the great mass of organized labor would sanction any such revolutionary idea. The "one big union," the political labor party, and the labor school system are still non-existent, and the wisdom of the American Federation of Labor may doubtless be trusted to avoid these pitfalls.

At the present time there are in existence, according to the Year Book, some twenty-two organizations for workman's education which bear the name of "college," or "university." It must be understood from the outset that the assumption of such nomenclature does not imply the existence of a higher institution in the generally accepted sense of that term. Thus the Workers' University conducted under the auspices of the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union by the Educational Department "consists of classes where advanced instruction is given in labor and cultural subjects. Those who attend these classes have had preliminary training in the Unity Centers and elsewhere. They are sufficiently familiar with the elements of the subjects of instruction, to be able to profit by courses whose instructors are specialists in the respective fields" (Year Book). Classes have been offered in

Literature, Drama, Poetry, Trade Union Politics, Waste, Unemployment, Labor Publicity, Trade Agreements, the Coal and Textile Industries, Psychology, and the Political and Social History of the United States. In 1922-23 the Workers' University in New York alone registered 7672 students. In Pennsylvania the State Federation of Labor conducts workers' study classes and has general direction of the Trade Union College of Philadelphia. The Boston Trade Union College, under the auspices of the Central Labor Union, offers courses of twenty-four weeks' duration including social and cultural subjects.

The schools just mentioned serve to illustrate the common type of non-residential labor colleges in which work is carried on largely by evening instruction. An attempt to found the residential type of college is to be noted in the establishment of Brookwood College in 1921 at Katonah, New York. Its opening class numbered twenty-two students. The governing body is called the Brookwood Cooperators with a membership drawn from faculty, administration, student body, etc. A two-year course of eight months each year in residence is offered. The curriculum is of the type common to the labor college, with especial emphasis on trade union and labor interests. Community life is developed by a general sharing of labor. Only those are eligible as students who have worked in industry and have held membership in a labor union. The college is coeducational.

Another type of residential college class for labor education is to be found in the Bryn Mawr summer school for women workers, already described. It must be borne in mind that all of these efforts at education of the workpeople are either purely cultural in nature

or, at the most, semi-professional, in the case of those who are studying the social and economic aspects of labor with the purpose of becoming labor leaders, trade union officials, etc. They are for the greater part the workers' own creations. The vocational side of his training on the other hand, the worker has been content to leave to the public schools, or to privately endowed institutions. Often these are the offspring of the older mechanics institutes, or they may be the creation of men of wealth as in the case of Cooper Union, Pratt Institute, Drexel Institute or the Carnegie Institute of Technology. These schools are naturally urban in type and their almost inevitable destiny seems to be that of expansion into degree-giving colleges, though there are some notable exceptions. Thus, in the development of institutions to meet the needs of labor for vocational training, is to be found a powerful, though indirect, influence of the working classes on the existence and purpose of many of our urban colleges and technical institutes.

CHAPTER VIII

Urban Influences on Educational Procedure

The effect of urban life upon the content of the college curriculum is elsewhere discussed and is, as a matter of fact, reasonably apparent to anyone who scans the organization and course of study of a university of to-day located in a large city, or with a student body drawn from and returning to city life. With the enrichment of subject-matter to keep pace with the progress of civilization has come also that element which some condemn as "materialism." It is not our purpose to discuss the merits or demerits of a training directed toward preparation for life's work. It is enough here to recognize the fact that this tendency is predominant to-day in American higher education. Its first impetus came doubtless from the feeling of obligation to society which the public support of higher education brought with it. Hence it has flourished in the state universities. But it is particularly in the urban institutions where adaptation to surroundings has tended to replace the traditional "cultural" subjects by the "practical" ones. Such effort to prepare students for the activities of life has led college teachers to seek new methods for training them. For the most part these methods are directed toward the encouragement of observation of and actual participation in the calling under study. Thus the often quoted "part-time method" in education, the doctrine of "learning by doing," has come into wide use.

The principle of learning by doing is not the invention of any individual or college, nor is its application limited to any particular kind of subjects. Learning by doing was common practice in the medieval system of apprenticeship to a master-workman. The young divinity student of a century ago, or of to-day, exemplifies it when he goes out to fill an occasional pulpit. The medical student in hospital work, or the hospital interne, is learning his profession by experimental practice under the supervision of the more experienced. The clerk, reading law in an attorney's office and doing routine work, is learning by doing. Sometimes the doing antedates the learning as in the case of the farmer who takes short courses in agriculture at the State university. But the combination of theory and practice is the essential heart of the system. Quite evidently its applications are by no means all of urban character. The growth of the city and of the urban college has not been responsible for the invention of the principle; it has only furnished a fertile soil for its development. The city is to-day the great workshop in which college teaching is being moulded into new forms.

The commercialization of the modern world through industry has led to such a complete overthrow of our educational ideals that new methods and systems have been developed overnight, so to speak, in provision for the exigencies of our changing conditions. While the great trend of the movement has led from an educated aristocracy to an educated democracy, so many new activities have woven their threads into the educational fabric that it is difficult to discern the beginning or end of the complicated patterns. As long as class distinction denied the producer an education, the

part-time system was unthinkable. The final collapse of the old was epitomized by John Dewey in his demand: "To make each one of our schools an embryonic community life, active with types of occupation that reflect the life of the larger society, and permeated throughout with the spirit of art, history, and science." True, John Dewey, after a period of six years, was forced to give up the experimental school which he had inaugurated at the University of Chicago, yet his principle is daily gaining a wider acceptance under conditions more favorable than those which he encountered.

The problems of vocational education, of the part-time system and of practical training for citizenship and for public service, are basically the same. The whole is summed up by Baron von Stein, whom Kerschensteiner quotes as saying: "A social spirit is only formed through direct participation in public life." Kerschensteiner himself, the great German exponent of vocational training, says: [1]

> Our schools make no systematic provision for fostering the higher social virtues—above all, that sense of duty to the community, which is of such immense importance. . . . We Germans always believe that we can effect all school education by means of explanation, by words or books, through mere lectures and addresses of all kinds. That is certainly the most convenient and the cheapest method of public education.

All men know to-day what great strides Germany, the home of theory and academicism, has made in practical education, particularly in vocational training. America's great contribution has been the development of the part-time system in higher education—a system

[1] Georg Kerschensteiner, "The Schools and the Nation," Macmillan and Company, London, 1914.

so infinitely capable of extension and variation that we may consider ourselves as still pioneers in an almost unexplored country. It is a basic truth, doubtless apparent even to primitive man, that the actual doing of a thing is the best method of learning. The instructor in chemistry who takes his class to visit industrial plants is contributing indirectly to the same principle, but he falls short of realization because his students merely observe and do not actually do. College and university laboratories of chemistry, physics, and engineering, are all places in which work leading to better knowledge of the subject may be done, but they, too, fall short in their failure to reproduce the conditions of commercial production. The instructor in social sciences who assigns practical problems in the investigation of social and economic conditions is standing at the threshold of the part-time system, but in most cases he remains there, largely because he has command of but a small part of the student's time and, usually, no voice in laying out his entire course of study.

The modern part-time system shades over almost imperceptibly from the "practical problem" assignment. Dean Schneider, of Cincinnati, was the first to realize, in the realms of higher education, that part-time work can be made most effective when it becomes the center of the system rather than a minor detail patched on to the old method. Thus, in order to establish "part time" on a real working basis, he demanded that the pupil be given over to him entirely—that he be trained in a regularly prescribed course which was laid out by the faculty of the part-time school without regard to the traditions of the established methods of education. Such procedure is of course rarely possible, except in

certain professional schools where the student's whole time is devoted to a cognate group of subjects. But the theory of learning by doing is applicable to many other fields of study and is therein more or less successfully applied. In such uncorrelated subjects and activities the practical experience is commonly known as "field work," and it is the city particularly which has given the opportunity for so wide an application of the field-work principle.

A comprehensive definition of field work is not easy to formulate. Perhaps the following [2] may suffice for our purpose:

> Under the term "field work" the Committee includes the activities of students in the performance of tasks of every-day life under actual conditions which may be accepted as directly related to concurrent class work. . . . Field work means actual participation in a practical task. Visits for purposes of mere observation are not field work.

The traditions of education recognize three main factors in the formal training of the student: the recitation, the lecture, and the laboratory. The quiz, the conference, the demonstration, and the examination are only variants or tests of these three basic methods. The science of teaching has reduced them to an exact status. In teacher training itself the field work principle is now common under the forms of practice teaching. Nevertheless educators have given but little attention or effort to any attempt to establish a theory of field work or to control its practice within the limits of definite standards of performance or attainment. For this condition the infinite variety of its applications

[2] Report of the Committee on Field Work of the Association of Urban Universities, to the Third Annual Meeting of the Association, p. 5, New York, 1916.

is doubtless to blame. The only detailed study of the subject, made by the Committee of the Association of Urban Universities in 1916 (op. cit.), provides information concerning the following points:

1. Nature of Field Work
2. Grade of Students Employed
3. Methods in Assignment
4. Methods of Supervision
5. Methods of Accrediting
6. Financial Remuneration
7. Results Obtained in Field Work

The Report however confines itself to a statement of facts and makes no attempt to draw from these facts any conclusion upon which general working principles could be established. Hence the whole methodology of field work is still undetermined. Yet the use of this instrument of education is undoubtedly increasing. In order to show the breadth of application which it has already attained, the following outline of a number of its uses is given: [3]

1. IN MEDICINE:	Sanitary survey of town; medical school service; public hygiene.
2. IN PSYCHOLOGY:	Mental tests and measurements; clinical field work.
3. IN COMMERCE:	Employment in business; special investigations.
4. IN DOMESTIC SCIENCE:	Institutional management; dietetic practice; public school teaching.
5. IN BIOLOGY AND ZOOLOGY:	Work in zoological gardens and bird reserves.
6. IN BOTANY:	School garden work.
7. IN SOCIAL SCIENCE AND ECONOMICS:	Work with bureau of charities and city charities departments; work in housing, health, relief, juvenile courts, anti-tuberculosis league, place-

[3] Field Work Report, *op. cit.*, pp. 14 ff.

	ment bureaus, boy scouts organizations, governmental departments (state or municipal), playgrounds, civic leagues, chambers of commerce, educational industrial unions, settlement clubs, community centers, school recreation centers, bureaus of state or municipal research and libraries.
8. IN ENGINEERING:	Industrial work of all kinds.
9. IN ARCHITECTURE:	Work in offices of practicing architects.
10. IN LAW:	In law offices, bureau of local aid under association of charities.
11. IN POLITICAL SCIENCE:	Work in legislative or municipal reference library; in city departments, state and local governments; in bureaus of legislative information; city surveys.
12. IN EDUCATION:	Practice teaching; work in superintendent's offices, placement bureaus, educational business offices.

It must not be inferred that the activities mentioned here cover the entire field of possibilities. But the departments represented are those in which the field work principle is particularly capable of application. The nature of these activities shows plainly that field work is predominantly an urban development in college training. The final estimate of its value as an educational method has not yet been made. A sane standpoint has been outlined by C. A. Beard: [4]

It may be that the new reformers are right and that the colleges should be abolished and students trained by turning them from the high schools into workshops and city departments. I am not of that party. I believe in the academic training and the more I mingle with men of affairs,

[4] Field Work Report, *op. cit.*, p. 91.

the more I am convinced that, other things being equal, the man with a thorough academic training is the better man for any work calling for administrative talent and discriminating judgment. As long as we hold to the practice of giving courses of instruction and granting degrees we should insist that field work should be a supplement to and not a substitute for academic training. It should be linked up with courses of instruction in such a way as to vitalize them and stimulate a professional interest in them.

The difficulties of organizing field work and holding students to duties that have a real disciplinary and informing value are very great. Only one who has spent a few years at the enterprise can appreciate them. Of course it is easy to toss off an assignment like this: "Run down to the city hall and attend a meeting of the board of aldermen," but to develop and prepare hundreds of assignments which are calculated to stimulate the student's interest and give him genuine information is another matter. It may be that things academic, as some of our reformers would have us believe, are useless. If so, why on earth are they around clamoring for academic credit for field work? Why don't they say that the universities are filled with ignoramuses and degrees are worthless and they will have nothing to do with them? Such a declaration would be entitled to the respect which it deserves. As long, however, as the advocates of field experience—of whom I am certainly one—demand academic credit for the experience, then they should insist that all field cooperation be of such a character as to afford real discipline and give accurate and valuable information, and that it should be subordinate to sound academic training. Otherwise why not give the A. B. to any tired business man or city employee who has had more field experience than any of the doctors of philosophy that we turn out. As long as we give degrees, let us insist that they stand for the academic discipline and preparation primarily. Otherwise we may as well throw them overboard. I am willing to consider that proposition, but that is beside the point

just at this hour. I cannot believe that organized and systematic instruction will or ought to be discarded in favor of a return to the apprenticeship system of education. The golden mean is the right way.

In at least one branch of education field work has been incorporated as a basic part of the training. The cooperative method of engineering education is built upon the theory of learning by doing. It was originated in the College of Engineering of the University of Cincinnati in 1906 by Dean Herman Schneider. The term *cooperative engineering curriculum* is applied to "a curriculum of predominantly engineering character, leading to a degree, which provides for the alternation at regularly scheduled intervals of periods of instruction in college and of supervised and correlated experience in industry." [5]

Naturally such a method of training is usually limited by its nature to an urban location, since it depends on intimate contacts with industry for its very existence. A brief description follows of a typical course, namely that at the University of Cincinnati where the plan originated:

The cooperative plan of education is based upon the philosophy that practice and theory should be taught concurrently and should be coordinated. There are now (*i.e.*, at Cincinnati in 1926) 1400 students in the course, and cooperative relations exist with about 200 industries. The established courses cover civil, electrical, mechanical and chemical engineering, commerce, architecture, landscape

[5] The Cooperative Method of Engineering Education, Bulletin No. 12 of the Investigation of Engineering Education, Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education, 1927. The author desires to record his indebtedness to this bulletin and to the Survey Committee of the Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn upon whose work it is based, for much of the information contained in this chapter.

architecture, interior decoration, jewelry, ceramics and so on. The field of cooperation extends to Chicago, Detroit, Flint, Cleveland, Rochester, Pittsburgh, Louisville, Huntington, and many towns in between. The course is five years long and operates eleven months a year. The students are divided into two groups, one-half being at the university while the other half are at work in the industries. The alternation is on a four-weekly basis. The students are paid directly by the employing firms at the rate that anybody else is paid for doing the same kind of work. Briefly it is the aim of the cooperative course to give the student a thorough training in the theory and in the practice of his chosen profession. The practical or "outside" work is arranged on a sequential plan to obtain the highest educational values.[6]

It is not our purpose here to enter the controversy which still rages between the advocates of the traditional engineering course and those of the new cooperative plan. It is enough to state that the cooperative plan has had a profound effect upon engineering education, since already about one-tenth of all engineering students in the United States are in cooperative courses. The table on page 216, drawn from the Report on the Cooperative Method of Engineering Education, already mentioned as a source, will serve to show how powerful has been the influence of the great cities with their industries, ready to serve as shops and laboratories, upon engineering education.

The report says:

of the sixteen institutions offering cooperative courses, all but two are situated in cities of more than 100,000 population, and only one is in a strictly rural community. Twelve

[6] University of Cincinnati Record, Series 1, Vol. XXII, No. 2, Part 4, Announcement of Courses, School of Applied Arts, 1926-1927, p. 14.

INSTITUTIONS OFFERING COOPERATIVE COURSES *

Name	*Type*	*Abbreviation*
Municipal University of Akron	Municipal university	Akron
University of Cincinnati	Municipal university	Cincinnati
Detroit Institute of Technology	Y. M. C. A. institution	Detroit Inst.
University of Detroit	Sectarian university	Detroit Univ.
The Drexel Institute (Philadelphia, Pa.)	Endowed technical college	Drexel
Evansville College (Indiana)	Sectarian college	Evansville
Georgia School of Technology (Atlanta)	State supported polytechnic institute	Georgia
University of Louisville	Municipal university	Louisville
Marquette University (Milwaukee, Wis.)	Sectarian university	Marquette
Massachusetts Institute of Technology (Department of Electrical Engineering) (Cambridge, Mass.)	Endowed polytechnic institute	M. I. T.
New York University	Endowed university	N. Y. U.
Newark Technical School (N. J.)	Municipally and state controlled college of engineering	Newark
University of North Carolina (Chapel Hill)	State university	No. Carolina
Northeastern University (Boston, Mass.)	Y. M. C. A. institute	Northeastern
University of Pittsburgh	Endowed university	Pittsburgh
Southern Methodist University (Dallas, Texas)	Sectarian university	So. Methodist

* Since the compilation of the above list, the Cleveland Y. M. C. A. School of Technology has increased the length of its cooperative curricula in engineering from three to five years and now confers the degree of Bachelor of Science.

The University of Tennessee announces that beginning with the session 1926-27, engineering students may choose either a regular four-year curriculum, or a five-year cooperative curriculum. The first year of the latter will be on the all-resident plan, followed by four years of cooperative training. Alternation between college and industry will be at intervals of the University term of twelve weeks.

of the institutions are in the Middle Atlantic and Central States, in which are concentrated most of the industrial activities of the country. Three of the institutions are in Southern States; only one institution is west of the Mississippi. Nearness to industrial activity has evidently been an important factor in instituting the cooperative plan.

Most of the growth in the cooperative plan has come since the conclusion of the war, eleven institutions having taken it up between the year 1919 and 1925. In so far as is known, only two institutions, Harvard and Lafayette, have adopted, and later discontinued, the use of the cooperative course. In both cases low registration seems to have been the cause of its abandonment. The report estimates that at the present time 5550 students are enrolled in cooperative engineering courses in the United States.

As has been already indicated, the cooperative principle has spread beyond the limits of engineering training. In 1920 at the University of Cincinnati, the home of the cooperative idea, a course in commerce was instituted on the cooperative basis.[7] In 1922 a course in architecture was begun upon the same plan. Wherever urban activity furnishes a practical workshop for combination with theoretical training, the cooperative principle is capable of adaptation to the needs of education. It is of course difficult to ascertain just how far the use of this principle has been extended. Doubtless many institutions are making a more or less informal or experimental use of some of its phases. Hence an attempt to list the institutions which give cooperative courses of any sort is almost sure to be open to the criticism of incompleteness. Nevertheless a list is here offered intended to include all institutions in the United States which offer definitely outlined cooperative courses of (supposedly) college grade: [8]

[7] Clyde W. Park, The Cooperative System of Education, p. 49. University of Cincinnati Studies, Series II, Volume XI, Part I, 1925.

[8] The author expresses his acknowledgment to Assistant Dean George W. Burns of the College of Engineering & Commerce of the University of Cincinnati for aid in the preparation of this list.

Institution	Type of Course
Antioch College Yellow Springs, Ohio.	Liberal Arts; Commerce; Engineering
University of Cincinnati Cincinnati, Ohio.	Engineering, Commerce Applied Arts
College of Medical Evangelists Loma Linda, Los Angeles, Calif.	Medical
Detroit Institute of Technology (Y.M.C.A.) Detroit, Mich.	Engineering
University of Detroit Detroit, Mich.	Engineering
Drexel Institute Philadelphia, Pa.	Engineering, Commerce
Evansville College Evansville, Indiana.	Liberal Arts; Engineering
Georgia School of Technology Atlanta, Ga.	Engineering
Industrial Mutual Association Flint, Michigan.	Engineering
University of Louisville Louisville, Ky.	Engineering
Marquette University Milwaukee, Wisconsin.	Engineering
Massachusetts Institute of Technology Cambridge, Mass.	Chemical and Electrical Engineering
Municipal University of Akron Akron, Ohio.	Engineering; Commerce
Municipal University of Wichita Wichita, Kansas.	Engineering
Newark Technical School Newark, New Jersey.	Engineering
New York University New York City, N. Y.	Engineering
University of North Carolina Chapel Hill, N. C.	Engineering
Northeastern University Boston, Mass.	Engineering
Southern Methodist University Dallas, Texas.	Engineering
University of Tennessee Knoxville, Tenn.	Engineering
University of Texas Austin, Texas.	Commerce
Y. M. C. A. School of Technology Cleveland, Ohio.	Engineering
University of Pittsburgh Pittsburgh, Pa.	Engineering
Worcester Polytechnic Institute* Worcester, Mass.	Engineering

*The practical work is concentrated into an (optional) period of fifteen months between the junior and senior years.

The importance of the cooperative principle in education has been further emphasized by the founding of the Association of Cooperative Colleges at a convention held in 1926 at the University of Cincinnati. The delegates to this convention represented fifteen colleges and came not only from engineering colleges, but also from schools of commerce and architecture, and from industries using college students.[9] Recently also the American Council on Education has given much attention to occupational problems of mutual interest to colleges and industry. Of particular value is its effort to write job specifications in accordance with which college training might be guided. A number of large industrial organizations are cooperating in this effort and some 2000 specifications have been written covering a wide variety of occupations ranging from laborer to educational director and general counsel of a large company. The range of subject-matter covered applies to every grade of school work.[10]

In summing up the position attained to-day by the cooperative principle in engineering training, one can do no better than turn to the conclusion reached in the Cooperative Report of the Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education, already cited:

> Cooperative engineering training has passed through an initial experimental period and is now firmly established in the general field of engineering education in the United States. It has been adopted and is working successfully in several of the strong institutions of the country. This fact alone, if there were none other, is proof that the plan has

[9] The Cooperative Engineer, p. 311, published by the College of Engineering and Commerce of the University of Cincinnati, October, 1926.

[10] C. R. Mann, Cooperative Education, The Educational Record, January, 1927.

merit and deserves a recognized place in engineering education. On the other hand, few except the most ardent advocates of the system will probably hold that it should be adopted universally. It is a plain fact that all-resident curricula in engineering, though they are certainly open to improvement, are, in general, successful in accomplishing their purposes. Neither all students nor all institutions, nor all types of engineering services, are best served by a single, uniform, standardized type of program. The field of engineering is immensely broad. Engineering graduates function throughout its entire range from the executive management of huge industrial enterprises and from professional services of the most expert character on the one hand to minor types of technical and operating services on the other. In this diversified field cooperative training seems unmistakably to have its proper place. The indications are that its particular function and peculiar merit is in training men for the operation of industrial enterprises. That many young men pursuing cooperative courses will become highly competent designers or researchers, and that many all-resident students will attain to positions of importance in the operating side of industry is undeniable, but it is probable that the cooperative program tends, on the average, more directly to prepare students to adjust themselves promptly to the requirements of administration and operation.

CHAPTER IX

The College in the City

From what has been written in previous chapters it becomes apparent that in the United States there has emerged from the process of educational evolution, a distinct type of college or university peculiar to the city. Historically differing from its English cousin, the "new university," it is nevertheless remarkably similar in purpose. Many of its distinctive qualities have already been described. It remains therefore only to complete the picture by the mention of certain miscellaneous facts which serve to distinguish the urban institution from its fellow institutions of higher learning in the United States. An urban college or university differs from its non-urban contemporaries perhaps most of all in the fact that its field of activity is more closely defined, and that its constituency is geographically more closely concentrated in its immediate vicinity. These conditions have certain far-reaching effects which are not always apparent to the casual observer. We have seen that in most urban institutions a great majority of the students come from the immediate vicinity. They live under similar conditions and have in large measure similar aims and purposes. This homogeneity of the student body allows the college to define its aims very clearly and concretely. Such aims are usually expressed in terms of a training which will produce citizens most useful

to the local community. Thus the common reproach of lack of purpose, so often marshalled against the American college, can rarely be used with justice against the urban college, for the urban college, if it be typical of the best of its kind, has a definite mission in the world. Naturally, if carried too far, such specialization of purpose may well degenerate into provincialism and narrowness, but this charge is rarely, if ever, heard.

The concentration of population about the campus of an urban institution serves not only to provide it with a student body and with definite aims for its curriculum, but it also intensifies, by mere physical proximity, the sense of responsibility which every college must feel towards its constituency. Such responsibility may be assumed as a matter of course in the case of public institutions. But even the great privately-supported urban colleges and universities have developed a keen sense of obligation to their communities. This is most commonly expressed in their desire to adapt their academic offerings to meet the legitimate needs of the constituency. Thus the occupational tinge of an area is a natural factor of weight. Just as the University of Liverpool offers subjects of importance to those engaged in overseas trade, so do the great institutions in the Pittsburgh district specialize in the field of the coal and steel industries, the University of Akron in rubber, Georgetown University at Washington in training for foreign service, and Columbia in journalism and business.

Interesting examples of such adaptability are found in the various types of service performed by certain municipal universities for their cities. Cincinnati and Akron maintain special laboratories devoted exclu-

sively to making chemical, physical and bacteriological tests for various city departments. At Cincinnati, by a unique arrangement, the control of the Cincinnati General Hospital is exercised by the Board of Directors of the University of Cincinnati, so that this Board is responsible for the care of the city's sick as well as for all branches of public higher education. Naturally this intimate union has been made the basis for the establishment of a complete teaching unit in the College of Medicine. For the training of teachers for the city school system both Cincinnati and Akron have developed a special school, supported jointly by the university and the public school system, and, at Cincinnati, jointly governed by a committee representative of both branches. Teachers are trained on the cooperative plan, *i.e.*, practice teaching in the school system is concurrent during at least a part of the course, with class-room work at the university. These schools not only prepare college students for teaching after graduation, but they offer many evening courses for study to teachers already in service. Teacher training for local community purposes is carried on at most of the other municipal universities.

The extent to which great private institutions are interested in the same problem is indicated by the phenomenal spread, geographically, of the work of the School of Education of New York University:

> The School of Education of New York University has spread from its original center at Washington Square and offers educational courses for teachers in thirty-eight cities in four states, according to Professor Robert A. Kissack, director of the Institute of Education. Many of the 2627 students will enter the resident School of Education in New

York City this year. Enrollment is three times as large as in 1924, when the institute was founded.

Work, although conducted in centers outside of New York, is practically the same as at Washington Square. The purpose of the Institute is to make collegiate educational courses available to a group of persons who are too far distant from New York to make resident attendance practical. Entrance requirements, the content of the course and the credit given are the same as for regular college work.

Ninety-two courses are conducted in outlying centers, and the Institute has charge of twenty-five courses in New York City. The work is under fifty-one instructors, twenty-four of whom are members of the faculty of the School of Education.

Professor Kissack advances the theory that in many cases the institute gets better results than from ordinary college study, for it brings together students from the same school systems who are working toward one end.

General courses are offered as well as specialized classes in educational sociology, elementary education, secondary education, educational psychology, general theory of education, history of education, educational administration, normal school education, physical education, music education, an art education, contemporary literature, American poetry, religious education and commercial education.

Towns and cities having institute courses this year are: Brooklyn, Buffalo, Central Islip, Kings Park, Mount Vernon, New York, Spring Valley, White Plains, Yonkers, in New York; Bridgeport and New Haven in Connecticut; Allentown, Easton, Hanover, Pottstown, Pottsville, in Pennsylvania; Asbury Park, Bayonne, Belmar, East Orange, Elizabeth, Freehold, Glen Ridge, Irvington, Jersey City, Millburn, Montclair, Morristown, North Bergen, North Plainfield, Orange, Paterson, Red Bank, Rutherford, Summit, Toms River, Trenton and Union City, in New Jersey.[1]

[1] School and Society, March 19, 1927, p. 336.

Training for public service has been recognized as a responsibility and a field for service by a considerable number of urban institutions. The College of the City of New York was a pioneer in the field with its School of Business and Civic Administration. Many of the activities of this school are carried on in direct relation with New York's municipal activities. Unique, in a smaller city, is the School of Citizenship and Public Affairs, established in 1924 by Syracuse University. The purposes of the school may be summarized as follows: to prepare students for the duties of citizenship; to stimulate and prepare those capable of leadership; to train teachers in modern methods of instruction in government and citizenship; and to prepare students for careers in public service. For the successful completion of the latter course indicated, the degree of Bachelor of Science in Public Administration is awarded. A similar type of work is carried on in a number of urban institutions by departments of economics or political science, often in conjunction with municipal or state research bureaus, where field work of a practical sort may be done. Naturally the obstacle in the way of successful operation of such schools and courses lies in the uncertainty of the market for their product. Public service, except where it is protected by a successfully functioning civil service system is by no means as yet a permanent profession in the United States, as it is in some European countries. Hence the reluctance of many students to enter upon it. Hope for improvement in this situation and for the development of more extended courses of training is held out by Mosher,[2] who says:

[2] William E. Mosher, Training for the City Manager Profession, City Manager Magazine, March, 1926.

At the present time, the specific training for city management probably does not exceed a single year in any of our institutions. I have in mind the University of California, the University of Michigan and the University of Syracuse. But as the demand for trained men increases, and the value of the training is increasingly recognized, it will be possible to extend this one year period until ultimately a full three or four year course will be made possible, just as this is now possible in the field of business administration. A consideration of the continued expansion of municipal administration and the almost unlimited opportunities for improving the quality of government give rise to this expectation. Development along these lines is, in my judgment, inevitable.

The most widespread effect of urban life upon American higher education, aside from the development of the evening session, is to be found in the multiplication of courses and schools in business training. While such schools are by no means limited to urban institutions (cf. the Amos Tuck School at Dartmouth), yet the incentive for their establishment came directly from the growing importance of the development of business in our cities as a factor in our national life. Following the example of such pioneer undertakings as the Wharton School of the University of Pennsylvania, most urban institutions to-day, and many rural ones, offer courses in business training under a multitude of names. In the larger cities the university has often forsaken its secluded campus and has established a "down town branch" in the business center. Perhaps no more plainly visible physical evidence of urban influence on higher education can be produced than this!

In much the same way as industry half a century

and more ago began to develop the "applied" sciences from the pure sciences as the basis for a new profession called engineering, so to-day business is creating a new profession on the basis of the applications of economics. With a vast body of new matter thus emerging for study, it is but natural that no ultimate classifications of the subject have as yet been found, and that as a result every school is a law unto itself in its conception and application of the principles of this new profession, if such it may be called. President F. B. Robinson, who, as former Dean of the School of Business and Civic Administration of the College of the City of New York, has had broad experience in organizing the new subject-matter, advocates [3] as a basis a sort of cultural core, consisting of language, mathematics, science, and basic economics, government and history. To this he adds certain general requirements in social and economic subjects, and upon this foundation builds up the specialized superstructure. The various specialization groups suggested in this connection are interesting, presenting as they do an attempt to classify the new material:

I. Accounting: cost accounting, auditing, systems, fiduciary accounting, advanced accounting problems (C. P. A.), law, mathematics and statistics of business, business and corporation finance, report writing.

II. General Business: business and corporation finance, business law, cost and accounting, sales management, advertising, selling, business management, labor and personnel, mathematics and statistics of business, business cycles and forecasting.

[3] A Survey of Higher Education in Cleveland, pp. 204 ff., The Cleveland Foundation, Cleveland, 1924.

III. Foreign Trade and Consular Service: foreign exchange, foreign credits, foreign markets, tariff and customs house procedure, technic of documents in foreign trade, international law, modern languages and commercial correspondence.

IV. Banking and Investments: bankers' and brokers' accounting, cost accounting, banking principles and management, banking systems (United States), banking systems (foreign), foreign exchange, domestic and foreign credit, business and corporation finance, investments, mathematics and statistics of business, business cycles and forecasting.

Additional specialization groups are suggested in Business Research, Marketing (including selling and advertising), Transportation, Municipal Administration, etc.

Institutions having on the faculty specialists with such valuable training as is indicated in the ability to present the subjects mentioned above, naturally see an opportunity to render useful service to urban business directly, through information of a statistical nature and conclusions drawn therefrom. Hence several universities maintain a regular bulletin service of this nature, or enter into agreement to perform specific research services for certain industries. An excellent example of the former type of service is found in the "Brown Business Service," a magazine issued by Brown University and the Providence Chamber of Commerce in cooperation with other agencies. A statistical service is furnished intended to be useful to retail sales managers, credit managers, bankers, real estate operators, building contractors, insurance agents, employment managers, manufacturers, etc.[4]

All these things are in the nature of direct proof that the curriculum of the American colleges is being gradually professionalized or vocationalized. This is in fact the very essence of the urban trend in higher education. But for the proper attainment of these new callings, and for the highest realization of life, the basis of the old culture is no less important than formerly. Why then has it lost ground? For no other reason than because the field of human knowledge has broadened so marvelously, while man's time and ability to assimilate have remained about the same. Thus the urban institutions have a duty to perform in refusing to be submerged entirely in the new tide of learning to the exclusion of the best in the older and basic disciplines. But mere moralizing will never accomplish this end. The rich financial reward of an early mastery of some practical branch of knowledge will outweigh, with most young people, the advantage of a mental culture which they are too immature to appreciate. A strict insistence on the part of those in charge of higher education upon the inclusion of the basic cultural subjects in every curriculum is the only safeguard which we have to assure us the continuation of our existence as an educated people.

The physical changes in our higher institutions, conditioned upon urban location, are of too great importance to ignore. Rural institutions may with small investment acquire as much ground as they need. The beautiful campus so typical of the American college is mostly to be found in the country or in small communities. Naturally the difficulties of securing adequate campus space increase with the size of the com-

[4] The Brown Business Service—What It Is and How You Can Use It.—Brown Bureau of Business Research.

munity, until they become almost prohibitive in the great city. Many institutions, nevertheless, in cities of considerable size are beautifully located on spacious grounds as, for example, are Brown and Yale, both near the centers of their respective cities. Among the municipal universities Cincinnati is most fortunate, not only having a large campus in an excellent section of the city, but being located adjacent to extensive city park lands which offer an eventual solution for the growth of the University. In towns of less than a million inhabitants the difficulties of location are not so acute. Adjacent land may usually be purchased at a reasonable figure, or new plots of sufficient size may be found not too far away from the center of population. Thus in cities of this kind there is usually no particular reason for differentiating college buildings or grounds from those occupied by purely rural institutions.

The college in the great city, however, faces an entirely different set of conditions. It may, of course, find ample land if it goes out far enough into the suburbs. But the fact that most urban institutions nowadays conduct evening sessions makes such action impossible, since the distances are too great, and the time at the disposal of the evening student for travel is too short. Usually there are but two possibilities to be considered for the urban institution—the use of a comparatively small piece of ground in the center of the city for the erection of a skyscraper type of building, or the acquisition of a somewhat larger plot within easy transportation distance of the center, which can be used intensively by covering it entirely with buildings of not more than five stories, so that elevator service is not absolutely essential. In either

case campus and athletic field are luxuries which most colleges thus situated cannot afford, at least not in immediate proximity to the educational plant.

In New York, where conditions are perhaps most crowded, both the City College and New York University have used a combination of the two plans, since each has a main plant and campus located well out from the business center and at the same time, downtown buildings of the skyscraper type largely for the convenience of professional and evening students. Similar conditions may be found in Chicago. Columbia in New York was wise enough to secure a considerable plot of ground on Morningside Heights while this section was still considered remote. Now it may be reached by subway in a quarter of an hour from Times Square, the center of New York. This land has been largely increased by subsequent purchases, but nevertheless Columbia with her enormous growth, has had to resort to the construction of a type of building, perhaps ten stories high and, of course, requiring elevator service. So skillful however has been the planning and arrangement of the group that this height, so rarely found on a college campus, makes no unusual impression, and the general aspect is one of harmonious unity. Undoubtedly Columbia presents the most conspicuously successful solution of the difficult problem which urban conditions impose upon the physical side of the American college. Not dissimilar is the effect produced under very like conditions by the great groups of buildings of the University of London in South Kensington, near the very heart of London, though there of course the height of the structures is not so great as at Columbia.

A striking example of urban college architecture will

be seen in the new "cathedral of learning" under process of construction by the University of Pittsburgh. The extreme height of this highest of all college buildings is by no means entirely due to overcrowded land conditions, since the University already possesses a campus of considerable size. Rather it is intended to be "an expression of force, strength, courage, an epic of the qualities which have built Pittsburgh." [5] The block of land on which this building stands covers fourteen acres. For the building alone eight and one-half million dollars were raised. It will tower 500 feet into the air and is cut straight off at the top showing, as Chancellor Bowman expressed it, that the top ends at the stars alone. Twelve elevators will be necessary to care for the 10,000 students which the building will house and its main hall will be nearly as large as that of the Pennsylvania Station in New York. But not only its size will distinguish this structure from all other college buildings. Many of the class rooms will depart from the formal class-room plan elsewhere common. Thus the room for Middle English will be furnished in such style that Chaucer might feel at home in it, if he could return, and the room for American History will reproduce a colonial setting. Such an atmosphere, it is felt, will be conducive to study for the love of study and will play an important part in the education of the student body, seventy-five per cent of whom return every night to their own houses. In summary this building may be looked upon as a gigantic effort to dramatize the university to Pittsburgh and to give expression to the indomitable

[5] From a speech delivered by Chancellor John G. Bowman of the University of Pittsburgh before the Association of Urban Universities at a luncheon tendered by the Providence Chamber of Commerce, Providence, Nov. 11, 1926.

spirit which pioneered the West. In this conception it must be regarded as a true instance of urban influence upon education, not the influence dictated by necessity, but that which springs from inspiration.

Prophecy is rarely useful for any practical purpose and hence is perhaps out of place in a work dealing with facts rather than with theories. However, he who regards the current of higher education in America must be impressed with the growing part which urban civilization is taking in its direction. The pioneer days of our country are past. Even with limited immigration, the population is increasing rapidly. The fingers of industry and production are drawing the people inevitably into the cities. Colleges are no longer springing up in remote rural sections as they did a century ago. To-day the town and the city are in increasing measure becoming the dwelling places of higher education. The effect of this movement has already been profound, as must be clear to him who has read these pages. What realignments, what changes another century may bring, is beyond the power of conjecture, but it is safe to say that the United States of to-morrow will never be satisfied with the college of yesterday.

APPENDIX A

DISTRIBUTION OF SUBJECTS OF STUDY TO WHICH EXCEPTIONAL ATTENTION IS GIVEN IN CERTAIN OF THE UNIVERSITIES AND UNIVERSITY COLLEGES OF THE UNITED KINGDOM [1]

(*The omission of the name of a University or College from under any of the following subject-headings is not to be taken as an indication that the subject is not studied.*)

Subjects generally provided for in Schools of Theology, Law, Medicine, etc., or ordinarily recognized as branches of the following departments of knowledge, are omitted from these lists, viz.: Economics, English Language and Literature; History, ancient, mediæval, and modern; Logic; Mathematics; Philology; Philosophy, mental and moral; Phonetics; Anatomy, human and comparative; Botany; Biology; Chemistry, inorganic, organic, physical, physiological (biochemistry), technical; Embryology; Geography; Geology; Histology; Mineralogy; Morphology; Palæontology; Pathology; Physics; Physiology; Psychology; Zoology.

ARTS

Anthropology, including Primitive Technology and Archæology: BIRMINGHAM; CAMBRIDGE; LONDON, [University Coll. and School of Econ.]; OXFORD, EDINBURGH, NATIONAL OF IRELAND, [Univ. Coll., Dublin]. (Vide also Ethnology.)

Archæology, Assyrian and Babylonian: LIVERPOOL; LONDON, [University Coll., King's Coll.]; OXFORD.

" *Celtic:* NATIONAL OF IRELAND, [The Univ. Colls.].

" *Central American:* LIVERPOOL.

" *Classical:* CAMBRIDGE; LIVERPOOL; LONDON, [University Coll.]; OXFORD. EDINBURGH.

" *Cretan:* OXFORD.

" *Egyptian:* LIVERPOOL; LONDON, [University Coll.]; MANCHESTER; OXFORD.

[1] Republished by permission of the Universities Union of the British Empire from their bulletin for 1926-27 on "Professional Schools, Post Graduation Courses, Specialist Studies in the Universities and University Colleges of Great Britain and Ireland."

Archæology, Numismatics: CAMBRIDGE; LIVERPOOL; OXFORD.
" *Roman Britain:* DURHAM.

Astronomy: CAMBRIDGE; LIVERPOOL; LONDON, [Univ. Coll.]; OXFORD. EDINBURGH; GLASGOW.

Astro-Physics: CAMBRIDGE; LONDON, [Imperial Coll.].

Campanology: BIRMINGHAM.

History, American: OXFORD.
" *British Dominions:* CAMBRIDGE; LONDON, [King's College]; MANCHESTER; OXFORD; WALES, [Univ. Coll., Aberystwyth]. EDINBURGH.
" *Byzantine:* LONDON, [King's Coll.]; OXFORD.
" *Central European:* LONDON, [King's Coll.].
" *French, and Institutions:* CAMBRIDGE; LONDON; MANCHESTER. EDINBURGH.
" *Indian, and Economics:* CAMBRIDGE; LONDON, [School of Oriental Studies]; OXFORD. EDINBURGH.
" *Irish:* MANCHESTER. NATIONAL OF IRELAND, [The Univ. Colls.].
" *of London:* LONDON, [University Coll.].
" *Military:* OXFORD; LONDON, [University Coll.].
" *Naval:* CAMBRIDGE.
" *Russian:* LIVERPOOL; LONDON, [King's Coll.].
" *Scottish:* EDINBURGH; GLASGOW.
" *Welsh:* WALES [The Univ. Colls.].

Palæography, Diplomatic and Papyrology, Bibliography: CAMBRIDGE; DURHAM; LIVERPOOL; LONDON, [University and King's Colls.]; MANCHESTER; OXFORD. EDINBURGH.

Political Science: BIRMINGHAM; CAMBRIDGE; LONDON, [School of Economics]; OXFORD; WALES, [Univ. Coll., Aberystwyth]. EDINBURGH; GLASGOW.

Public Administration and Finance: LONDON, [School of Economics]; MANCHESTER; OXFORD.

Public Reading and Speaking: DURHAM. ABERDEEN; EDINBURGH.

Solar Physics: CAMBRIDGE.

LANGUAGES AND LITERATURE (omitting those which are studied in the large majority of Universities and Colleges, viz., Hebrew including Aramaic and Syriac, Greek, Latin, French, German, Italian, Russian, and Spanish).

Amharic: LONDON, [School of Oriental Studies].

Anglo-Saxon: CAMBRIDGE; LONDON, [Univ. Coll.]; OXFORD. TRINITY COLLEGE, DUBLIN.

Arabic: Bristol; Cambridge; London, [School of Oriental Studies]; Manchester; Oxford. Edinburgh; Glasgow. Trinity College, Dublin.

Armenian: London, [School of Oriental Studies].

Assamese: London, [School of Oriental Studies].

Bantu: Cambridge; London, [School of Oriental Studies].

Bengali: Cambridge; London, [School of Oriental Studies]; Oxford.

Burmese: Cambridge; London, [School of Oriental Studies]; Oxford.

Celtic (v. also Irish, Welsh): London, [University Coll.]; Oxford. Aberdeen; Edinburgh; Glasgow. Belfast; Trinity College, Dublin; National of Ireland [The Univ. Colls.].

Chinese: Cambridge; London, [School of Oriental Studies]; Manchester; Oxford.

Danish, v. Scandinavian.

Dravidian Languages: London, [School of Oriental Studies].

Dutch: London, [Univ. Coll. and Bedford Coll., jointly].

Ethiopic: London, [School of Oriental Studies]; Oxford.

Greek, Byzantine and Modern: Oxford; London, [King's Coll.].

Gujerati: London, [School of Oriental Studies].

Hausa: Cambridge; London, [School of Oriental Studies].

Hindi: Oxford.

Hindustani, v. Urdu.

Icelandic, v. Scandinavian.

Irish: Oxford. Trinity College, Dublin; National of Ireland, [The Univ. Colls.].

Japanese: London, [School of Oriental Studies].

Kashmiri: London, [School of Oriental Studies].

Malay: London, [School of Oriental Studies].

Marathi: Cambridge; London, [School of Oriental Studies]; Oxford.

Melanesian: London, [School of Oriental Studies].

Nepali: London, [School of Oriental Studies].

Norwegian, v. Scandinavian.

Pali: Cambridge; London, [School of Oriental Studies]; Oxford.

Persian: Cambridge; London, [School of Oriental Studies]; Oxford. Trinity College, Dublin.

Polynesian: London, [School of Oriental Studies].

Portuguese: London, [King's Coll.]; Univ. Coll., Nottingham.

Rhæto-Romance: Cambridge.

Rumanian: CAMBRIDGE; LONDON, [King's College].

Sanskrit: CAMBRIDGE; LONDON, [School of Oriental Studies]; OXFORD. EDINBURGH. TRINITY COLLEGE, DUBLIN.

Scandinavian Languages—Danish, Norwegian, Swedish, Icelandic: CAMBRIDGE; LONDON, [University Coll.]; OXFORD.

Siamese: LONDON, [School of Oriental Studies].

Sinhalese, Tamil, and Telegu: CAMBRIDGE; LONDON, [School of Oriental Studies]; OXFORD.

Slavonic Languages, other than Russian: CAMBRIDGE; LONDON, [King's Coll.]; Univ. Coll., Nottingham.

Slavonic Philology, Comparative: LONDON, [King's Coll.].

Swahili: LONDON, [School of Oriental Studies].

Swedish, v. Scandinavian.

Talmudic: CAMBRIDGE.

Tibetan: LONDON, [School of Oriental Studies].

Turkish: CAMBRIDGE; LONDON, [School of Oriental Studies].

Urdu: CAMBRIDGE; LONDON, [School of Oriental Studies]; OXFORD. TRINITY COLLEGE, UNIV. OF DUBLIN.

Welsh: LIVERPOOL; OXFORD; WALES, [the 4 Univ. Colls.].

Yoruba: LONDON, [School of Oriental Studies].

Comparative Philology: CAMBRIDGE; LONDON, [University Coll., King's Coll., School of Oriental Studies]; OXFORD. ABERDEEN; EDINBURGH; GLASGOW. TRINITY COLLEGE, DUBLIN.

Imperial Latin: MANCHESTER.

Phonetics: LONDON, [University Coll.].

SCIENCE, APPLIED SCIENCE, COMMERCE, SOCIOLOGY

Aero-Dynamics: LONDON, [Imperial Coll.].

Animal Pathology: CAMBRIDGE; LONDON, [R. Vet. Coll.].

Aviation and Aero-Engineering: CAMBRIDGE; LONDON, [Imperial Coll., East London Coll.]; OXFORD. GLASGOW.

Colloidal Chemistry: BRISTOL; MANCHESTER.

Cytology: LIVERPOOL.

Economic Entomology: LIVERPOOL; LONDON, [Imperial Coll.]; MANCHESTER. EDINBURGH.

Ethnology and Social Anthropology: CAMBRIDGE; LONDON, [University Coll., School of Econ.]; OXFORD.

Eugenics: LONDON, [University Coll.].

Genetics: CAMBRIDGE; OXFORD. EDINBURGH.

Geodesy: CAMBRIDGE.

Household Science: BRISTOL; LONDON, [King's Coll. Household and Social Sci. Dept.]; READING; WALES, [Univ. Coll., Cardiff].

Meteorology: CAMBRIDGE; LONDON, [Imperial Coll.]; OXFORD.

Military Science: BRISTOL; CAMBRIDGE; DURHAM; LONDON; OXFORD; Univ. Coll., Nottingham.

Oceanography and Fisheries: LIVERPOOL; WALES, [Univ. Coll., Aberystwyth]. ABERDEEN.

Physiology of Animal Nutrition: CAMBRIDGE. ABERDEEN.

Plant Pathology: CAMBRIDGE; LONDON, [Imperial Coll.].

Protozoology: LONDON, [King's Coll., Lister Institute]. EDINBURGH; GLASGOW.

Psychology, Comparative: ABERDEEN.

" *Experimental:* CAMBRIDGE; LONDON, [University Coll., King's Coll., Bedford Coll.]; MANCHESTER. EDINBURGH; GLASGOW.

" *Industrial:* LONDON, [School of Economics]; MANCHESTER.

Railway Economics: LONDON, [School of Economics]; MANCHESTER.

Spectroscopy: LONDON, [Imperial Coll., King's Coll.]; OXFORD.

Statistics: CAMBRIDGE; LONDON, [University Coll., School of Economics]. ABERDEEN; EDINBURGH.

Sociology: LONDON, [School of Economics]; LIVERPOOL.

Social Study: BIRMINGHAM; BRISTOL; LEEDS; LIVERPOOL; LONDON, [School of Economics, Bedford Coll., v. also Household Science]; OXFORD; WALES, [Univ. Coll., Cardiff]; Univ. Coll., Nottingham. EDINBURGH; GLASGOW; ST. ANDREWS, [Univ. Coll., Dundee].

LAW

Law, International: CAMBRIDGE; LIVERPOOL; LONDON, [School of Economics]; OXFORD. ABERDEEN; EDINBURGH; GLASGOW.

" *Commercial:* BIRMINGHAM; LEEDS; LIVERPOOL; LONDON, [School of Economics]; EDINBURGH; GLASGOW.

" *Comparative:* LONDON, [University Coll.].

" *Indian:* CAMBRIDGE; LONDON, [School of Oriental Studies]; OXFORD.

" *Industrial:* BIRMINGHAM; LONDON [School of Economics]. EDINBURGH.

" *Roman-Dutch:* CAMBRIDGE; OXFORD; LONDON.

" *Russian, and Economics:* LONDON, [King's Coll., School of Economics].

" *Scots:* The Scottish Universities.

MEDICINE

Cancer Research: LEEDS; LONDON, [Middlesex Hospl.]; MANCHESTER. ABERDEEN.

History of Medicine: LONDON, [University Coll.]. EDINBURGH.

Medical Entomology: CAMBRIDGE. EDINBURGH.

Medical Statistics: LONDON, [University Coll., Nat. Inst. for Med. Research].

Mental Diseases (Research): BIRMINGHAM.

Parasitology and Helminthology: CAMBRIDGE; LIVERPOOL; LONDON, [School of Tropical Med.]. ABERDEEN; EDINBURGH.

Radiology and Electrology: CAMBRIDGE; LIVERPOOL. EDINBURGH.

Tropical Medicine: CAMBRIDGE; LIVERPOOL; LONDON, [Royal Army Med. Coll., School of Tropical Med.]. EDINBURGH.

Tropical Surgery: LONDON, [School of Tropical Med.].

Tuberculosis: WALES, [Univ. Coll., Cardiff]. EDINBURGH; GLASGOW.

TECHNOLOGY

Brewing: BIRMINGHAM.

Chemical Engineering, Technical Chemistry, or *Industrial Chemistry:* LONDON, [University Coll., Imperial Coll.]; MANCHESTER. EDINBURGH; GLASGOW (Roy. Tech. Coll.).

Colour Chemistry, Bleaching, Dyeing: LEEDS; MANCHESTER; Univ. Coll., Nottingham. GLASGOW, [Royal Technical Coll.]. BELFAST (Munic. Coll.).

Economic Mineralogy: LONDON, [Imperial Coll.].

Electro-Chemistry: MANCHESTER.

Electrotechnics: MANCHESTER; LONDON, [Imperial Coll.]. BELFAST, [Municipal Coll.].

Engineering, Automobile: BRISTOL.
" *Dock and Harbour:* LIVERPOOL. TRINITY COLLEGE, DUBLIN.
" *Hydro-Electrical:* MANCHESTER.
" *Marine:* DURHAM, [Armstrong Coll.]; LIVERPOOL. GLASGOW. BELFAST.
" *Municipal and Sanitary:* LIVERPOOL; LONDON; MANCHESTER, [Coll. of Technology]. GLASGOW.
" *Railway:* LIVERPOOL; LONDON, [Imperial Coll.].
" *Water Supply and Irrigation:* MANCHESTER.

Fuel, Coal and Gas: LEEDS; LONDON, [Imperial Coll.]; MANCHESTER, [Coll. of Technology]; SHEFFIELD; Univ. Coll., Nottingham. GLASGOW, [Royal Technical Coll.].

Glass: SHEFFIELD.

Leather: LEEDS.

Oil Engineering and Refining: BIRMINGHAM; LONDON, [Imperial College].

Optical Engineering and Applied Optics: LONDON, [Imperial Coll.].

Photography: MANCHESTER, [Coll. of Technology].

Rubber: LONDON, [Northern Polytechnic]; MANCHESTER.

Sugar: GLASGOW, [Royal Technical Coll.].

Textiles: LEEDS; MANCHESTER, [Coll. of Technology]; Univ. Coll., Nottingham. GLASGOW, [Royal Technical Coll.]. BELFAST, [Municipal Coll.].

Woods and Fibres: LONDON, [Imperial Coll.].

APPENDIX B

Schools of Collegiate Rank in Cities of a Population of 100,000 or over in the United States [1]

State	*City*	*Institution*
Alabama	Birmingham	Birmingham-Southern College
		Howard College
California	Los Angeles	California Christian College
		Loyola College
		University of Southern California
		Occidental College
	Oakland	St. Mary's College
	San Francisco	St. Ignatius University
Colorado	Denver	Regis College
		Colorado Women's College
		†University of Denver
Connecticut	Hartford	Trinity College
	New Haven	Albertus Magnus College
		Yale University
District of Columbia	Washington	American University
		Catholic Sisters College
		Catholic University of America
		Gallaudet College
		Georgetown University
		†George Washington University
		*Howard University
		Robert Brookings Graduate School
		Trinity College
Georgia	Atlanta	*Atlanta University
		*Clark University
		Georgia School of Technology
		*Morehouse College
		*Morris Brown University
Illinois	Chicago	Armour Institute of Technology
		dePaul University
		Lewis Institute
		Loyola University
		St. Francis Xavier College
		University of Chicago

State	*City*	*Institution*
Indiana	Indianapolis	Butler College
		Indiana Central College
Iowa	Des Moines	Des Moines University
		Drake University
Kansas	Kansas City	Kansas City University
Kentucky	Louisville	*Simmons University
		†University of Louisville
Louisiana	New Orleans	Loyola University
		*New Orleans College
		*Straight College
		Tulane University of Louisiana
Maryland	Baltimore	College of Notre Dame of Maryland
		Goucher College
		†Johns Hopkins University
		Loyola College
		*Morgan College
Massachusetts	Boston	†Boston University
		Emanuel College
		Northeastern University
		Simmons College
	Cambridge	†Harvard University
		Massachusetts Inst. of Technology
		Radcliffe College
	Lowell	Lowell Textile School
	Springfield	International Y. M. C. A. College
	Worcester	†Clark University
		College of the Holy Cross
		Worcester Polytechnic Institute
Michigan	Detroit	College of the City of Detroit
		University of Detroit
Minnesota	Minneapolis	Ausburg Seminary
		†University of Minnesota
	St. Paul	College of St. Catherine
		College of St. Thomas
		†Hamline University
		Macalester College
Missouri	Kansas City	Rockhurst College
	St. Louis	College of the Sacred Heart
		St. Louis University
		†Washington University
Nebraska	Omaha	Creighton University
		Duchesne College
		University of Omaha
New York	Albany	New York State Library School

State	*City*	*Institution*
	Buffalo	Cansisius College
		D'Youville College
		†University of Buffalo
	New York	Barnard College
		College of Mt. St. Vincent
		†College of the City of New York
		College of the Sacred Heart
		Columbia University
		Cooper Union
		Fordham University
		†Hunter College
		Manhattan College
		†New York University
	(Brooklyn)	Adelphi College
		†Polytechnic Institute
		St. Francis College
		St. John's College
		St. Joseph's College
	Rochester	†University of Rochester
	Syracuse	New York State College of Forestry
		†Syracuse University
Ohio	Akron	†Municipal University of Akron
	Cincinnati	College of the Sacred Heart
		St. Xavier College
		†University of Cincinnati
	Cleveland	†Case School of Applied Science
		John Carroll University
		Notre Dame College
		†Western Reserve University
	Columbus	Capital University
		†Ohio State University
	Dayton	University of Dayton
	Toledo	St. John's University
		†University of the City of Toledo
Oregon	Portland	Reed College
Pennsylvania	Philadelphia	†Drexel Institute
		Dropsie College
		LaSalle College
		St. Joseph's College
		†Temple University
		†University of Pennsylvania
	Pittsburgh	†Carnegie Institute of Technology
		Duquesne University of the Holy Ghost

State	*City*	*Institution*
Pennsylvania	Pittsburgh	Pennsylvania College for Women
		†University of Pittsburgh
	Scranton	Marywood College
Rhode Island	Providence	†Brown University
		Providence College
Tennessee	Memphis	Southwestern College
	Nashville	*Fiske University
		†Vanderbilt University
Texas	Dallas	University of Dallas
		Southern Methodist University
	Fort Worth	Texas Christian University
		Texas Women's College
	Houston	Rice Institute
	San Antonio	Incarnate Word
		Our Lady of the Lake College
Utah	Salt Lake City	University of Utah
Virginia	Richmond	University of Richmond
		*Virginia Union University
Washington	Seattle	University of Washington
	Spokane	Gonzaga University
		Whitworth College
Wisconsin	Milwaukee	College of Engineering of Milwaukee
		Marquette University
		Milwaukee Downer College

Note:—In addition to the above list should be mentioned as of the urban type four other institutions which are members of the Association of Urban Universities:

Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois.
Evansville College, Evansville, Illinois.
Wittenberg College, Springfield, Ohio.
Municipal University of Wichita, Wichita, Kansas.

The College of Charleston is a municipal institution.

[1] Based on information furnished by the U. S. Bureau of Education. In determining the population of cities, the figures of the census of 1920 are used.

* Institutions for colored persons.

† Member of the Association of Urban Universities.

APPENDIX C

AN ACT TO AUTHORIZE THE ESTABLISHMENT AND MAINTENANCE OF A MUNICIPAL UNIVERSITY BY CITIES OF MORE THAN SEVENTY THOUSAND AND LESS THAN ONE HUNDRED AND TEN THOUSAND INHABITANTS.

Be It Enacted by the Legislature of the State of Kansas.

SECTION 1. The governing body of any city of more than seventy thousand inhabitants and less than one hundred ten thousand inhabitants may, at any regular election or at any special election called for that purpose, submit to a vote of the qualified electors of such city the question: "Shall this city establish and maintain a municipal university to include a four year's college course and such other departments as may be deemed expedient by the Board of Regents thereof?" When ten percent of the registered voters of such city shall petition for the submission of said question, then the governing body of such city shall submit the same to a vote of the qualified electors of said city. Unless a regular election is to be held within six months after the date of the filing of such petition, said question shall be submitted at a special election within ninety days after the date of the filing of said petition. Whenever any city shall have established a Municipal University under the provisions of this Act, any change in population of said city thereafter occurring shall not affect such Municipal University or any rights, powers or duties conferred by this Act.

Section 2. If a majority of the qualified electors voting on the above mentioned question shall vote in the affirmative, then the governing body of such city shall immediately establish such municipal university as hereinafter provided.

Section 3. The management and control of said municipal university shall be vested in a board to be known as the Board of Regents of the Municipal University of ————————(filling out the blank with the name of the municipality).

Section 4. The Board of Regents of said municipal university shall consist of nine members, four of whom shall be selected by the governing body of said city and four of whom shall be selected by the board of education of said city, and the Mayor of the city who shall be ex-officio the ninth member.

Section 5. Those members of said Board of Regents selected by the governing body of said city shall hold office from the date of their appointment and qualification until the first day of July following and for the terms thereafter herein fixed, to wit., one member to the first day of July following only; one member for one year; one for two years, one for three years, and until their respective successors have been duly selected and qualified. Thereafter each year subsequent to the first day of April and prior to the first day of June, the governing body of such city shall select one Regent of the Municipal University to serve for a full term of four years from the first day of July following and until their successors have been duly selected and qualified. The governing body of such city shall fill all vacancies existing in the office of Regent other than those chosen by the board of education by the appointment of a Regent or Regents to hold office for the unexpired term and until their successors have been selected and qualified.

Section 6. Those members of said Board of Regents selected by the board of education of said city shall hold office from the date of their appointment and qualification until the first day of July following and for the terms thereafter herein fixed, to-wit, one member to the first day of July following only; one member for one year; one for two years and one for three years, and until their respective successors have been duly selected and qualified. Thereafter each year at the June meeting of said board of education, said board of education shall select one Regent of the Municipal University to serve for a full term of four years from the first day of July following and until his successor has been duly selected and qualified. The board of education shall fill any vacancy existing in the office of Regent other than those chosen by the governing body of such city by the appointment of a Regent or Regents to hold office for the unexpired term and until their successors have been selected and qualified. Resignations from said Board of Regents shall be made to the chairman of said board and by him reported to the respective bodies herein given the power of appointment.

Section 7. Every such Regent shall be a resident of the municipality from which he is chosen. Such Regents shall serve without compensation and shall have all the powers and perform all the duties conferred or required by law in the government of such university, and the execution of any trust with respect thereto imposed on the municipal corporation.

Section 8. Immediately after receiving notification of their selection, the Regents-elect shall meet at a time and place to be designated by the mayor of said city, shall take oath to uphold the constitution of the United States and the constitution of Kansas, and faithfully, honestly and impartially to discharge the duties of their office; shall proceed to organize, electing from their own num-

ber a chairman and such other officers as may be necessary for the full discharge of the duties imposed on them, and thereafter such officers shall be elected or chosen at the June meeting of each year, to take office the first day of July next following.

Section 9. The Board of Regents so constituted shall have power to prescribe such rules, by-laws and regulations as may be most expedient for the board and for the government of the Municipal University, its faculty, instructors, other employees and all students attending the university, subject to the existing laws of the State and of the United States. Said Board of Regents shall also have power to fix reasonable tuition and other charges to be paid by students attending said university, and may, in its discretion, make additional charges to students who are not residents of such city.

Section 10. A majority of the qualified Regents at any time shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business.

Section 11. Such Board of Regents shall be vested with all powers, authority and control belonging to or vested in said municipal corporation with respect to the management of the estate, property and funds given, transferred, covenanted or pledged to such municipal corporation in trust or otherwise for such municipal university.

Section 12. The Board of Regents of said municipal university shall have power to employ a president of the municipal university who shall be the chief executive officer of the Board and of the municipal university; to employ all teachers, administrative assistants and other employees necessary for the maintenance of said municipal university and the discharge of its functions; and to fix the salary or compensation of each; *provided,* that the employment of said assistants may be delegated to the president of the university or a committee of the Board, subject to the approval of the Board; to provide all such necessary buildings, books, apparatus, means and appliances as may be needful for the maintenance and furtherance of the university and its various colleges, departments and undertakings; to make all suitable by-laws delegating all matters concerning admission, government, management and control of students, courses of study, discipline and other internal affairs of such university to the president or to the faculty or both, as the Board may see fit.

Section 13. The Board shall have power to receive, hold, purchase, sell, rent and lease property, real, personal or mixed, and may enter into any legal and necessary contract in the discharge of its functions as a fully incorporated body. For the further endowment, maintenance or aid of such municipal university, it may receive bequests; accept and take, as trustee, and in trust for the afore-mentioned purposes, any estate, property or fund which may have been or may lawfully be transferred to said Board or to the municipal corporation

for such use by any person, persons or body corporate having them, or any annuity or endowment in the nature of income which may be covenanted or pledged to said Board or to the municipal corporation toward such use by any person, persons or body corporate. Any person, persons, or body corporate having or holding any such estate, property or funds in trust or applicable for the promotion of education or the advancement of any of the arts or sciences may convey, assign and deliver these to such Board of Regents as trustee in his, their or its place, or covenant or pledge its income or any part thereof to such Board. Such estate, property, funds or income shall be held and applied by such Board of Regents in trust for the further endowment and maintenance and aid of such university, in accordance with the terms and true intent of any trust or condition upon which they were originally given or held or may be so given and accepted hereafter, and such Board of Regents and its successors shall become and are perpetually obliged and held to observe and execute such trust in all respect according to any and all terms lawfully agreed upon at the time of such transfer and acceptance. It shall have the same rights of securing land and other property by condemnation procedure as are vested in boards of education of cities of the same class.

Section 14. The Board of Regents of said municipal university shall have power to prescribe rules, regulations, compensation and charges, if any, for the use; and to prescribe the intent, purpose and manner of use, by persons, associations and corporations of the lands or buildings of said university or any part thereof at such times as the same are not required for the use of said university and those attending thereat, and said Board shall have power to prescribe what fees or charges, if any, such persons, associations or corporations may exact for attendance at or participation in the use so permitted. All moneys, if any, so received shall be credited to the general fund of said university.

Section 15. All property, real, personal or mixed, heretofore or hereafter so given to or purchased or otherwise received by the Board of Regents of such municipal university, the rents, issues, profits and income of which are used exclusively for the endowment or support of said university, shall be exempt from all taxation except special taxation for municipal sewers and pavements so long as the rents, issues, profits or income thereof are used for and exclusively applied to the endowment or support of said university.

Section 16. The Board of Regents of said municipal university shall have the power to determine all questions of departments or schools to be established within said municipal university, all courses to be offered, degrees to be conferred, all questions of organization or discipline, and the fees or charges to be paid by those availing themselves of the privileges or opportunities of said university, and

to delegate the execution of such details as said Board may see fit to the duly authorized agents of said Board. The Board shall have the right, upon recommendation of the president and faculty, to confer all honors, diplomas, certificates and degrees suitable to institutions of the same class. The Board shall have the power upon such terms and conditions as it may prescribe, to furnish special courses and courses of study in vocational subjects and civic administration and other educational advantages, including the admission of non-matriculated students within the college buildings or elsewhere, and may grant suitable certificates and vocational diplomas and degrees to such students as shall have completed the course of study so prescribed. All moneys received, as provided by this section, shall be credited to the general fund of said university, and all expenses incurred in pursuance of this section shall be met from said general funds, subject to the regulation of said Board of Regents.

Section 17. The Board of Regents of such municipal university is authorized to cooperate with the board of education and with all other agencies of the city, state. or federal government for the furtherance of education. The governing body of any such municipal corporation authorizing a municipal university may set apart or appropriate as a site for the buildings and grounds of such municipal university or any of its departments any public grounds of the city not especially appropriated or dedicated by ordinance to any other use, any other law to the contrary notwithstanding, and the board of education of any such municipal corporation may, for a like purpose, set apart, convey or lease for a term of years, to and for the use of said municipal university any grounds or buildings owned or controlled by such board.

Section 18. Such Board of Regents shall, in the month of August of each year, levy a tax for the support of such municipal university including buildings, equipment and repairs of the buildings and equipment of such municipal university and including such amount as shall be necessary for the annual operation of such municipal university for the fiscal year commencing on the first day of July last preceding the month of August in which such levy shall be made, not exceeding in any one year two mills on the dollar on all personal, mixed and real property within said city, which is taxable according to the laws of the State of Kansas, which levy the President and Clerk of such Board of Regents shall, on or before August 25th certify to the County Clerk who is hereby authorized and required to place the same on the tax roll of said County to be collected by the Treasurer of the County as are other taxes, and paid over by him to the Treasurer of such Board of Regents, subject to the order of said Board of Regents.

Provided Further, That if in any year the amount so certified and collected is not needed for the purposes of such university, the

balance shall be credited to the sinking fund of such university to be used for additional buildings or other necessary permanent equipment. *Provided further,* that if said municipal university shall be established and begin operations before funds are available from such levy, it shall be lawful for the Board of Regents thereof to borrow money, not exceeding five thousand dollars per month, and issue its warrants or other suitable evidence of indebtedness therefor, for the maintenance and operation of said university until the funds from said levy shall be available and said Board may include in the levy of the subsequent year, the amount thus obtained. *Provided further,* that said levy shall at no time exceed the amount of two mills on the dollar of the assessed valuation of the above described property of said city.

Section 19. All other powers and privileges necessary for the discharge of the functions of said municipal university which are not herein prescribed or limited are hereby granted, providing they are not in conflict with other specific legislation. The provisions of this act and all grants of power, authority or rights herein made to cities adopting the provisions of such Act and to Boards of Regents created under the provisions of this Act shall be liberally construed and all incidental powers necessary to carry into effect the provisions of this Act, are hereby expressly granted to and conferred upon any city adopting the provisions of this Act or any Board of Regents created pursuant to the adoption of its provisions.

Section 20. The Board of Regents of such municipal university shall, prior to the end of the fiscal year of said city, make a written report to the governing body of said city and a copy thereof to the board of education of said city, which shall state fully the status and progress of said university, both educationally and financially, during the year immediately preceding, and such other information regarding said university as the governing body of said city may require.

Section 21. If any section or provision of this Act shall be found invalid by any court, it shall be conclusively presumed that this Act would have been passed by the Legislature without such individual section or provision and the Act as a whole shall not be declared invalid by reason of the fact that one or more sections or provisions may be found invalid by any court.

Section 22. All acts and parts of acts in conflict herewith are hereby repealed.

Section 23. This Act shall take effect and be in force from and after its publication in the official state paper.

APPENDIX D

Junior Colleges [1]

Marion, Ala.—Marion Institute
Phoenix, Ariz.—Junior College [3]
Conway, Ark.—Central College
Bakersfield, Calif.—Junior College [3]
Eureka, Calif.—Junior College [3]
Fullerton, Calif.—Junior College [3]
Hollister, Calif.—Junior College [3]
Ontario, Calif.—Junior College [3]
Pasadena, Calif.—Junior College [3]
Pomona, Calif.—Junior College [3]
Riverside, Calif.—Junior College [3]
Sacramento, Calif.—Junior College [3]
Santa Ana, Calif.—Junior College [3]
Santa Maria, Calif.—Junior College [3]
Athens, Ga.—Lucy Cobb Institute
Cuthbert, Ga.—Andrew College
Tifton, Ga.—South Georgia Agricultural and Mechanical College [2]
Waleska, Ga.—Reinhardt College
Young Harris, Ga.—Young L. G. Harris College
Pocatello, Idaho—Idaho Technical Institute [2]
Carlinville, Ill.—Blackburn College
Chicago, Ill.—Crane Junior College [3]
Godfrey, Ill.—Monticello Seminary
Joliet, Ill.—Junior College [3]
LaGrange, Ill.—Broadview College
Lake Forest, Ill.—Ferry Hall
Mount Carroll, Ill.—Frances Shimer School
Vincennes, Ind.—Vincennes University
Burlington, Iowa—Junior College [3]
Mason City, Iowa—Junior College [3]
Arkansas City, Kans.—Junior College [3]
Coffeyville, Kans.—Junior College [3]
Fort Scott, Kans.—Junior College [3]
Garden City, Kans.—Junior College [3]
Hesston, Kans.—Hesston College
Highland, Kans.—Highland College

JUNIOR COLLEGES (Cont.)

Iola, Kans.—Junior College [3]
Leavenworth, Kans.—St. Mary's College
McPherson, Kans.—Central Academy and College
Parsons, Kans.—Junior College [3]
Campbellsville, Ky.—Campbellsville College
Columbia, Ky.—Lindsey-Wilson Junior College
Covington, Ky.—Villa Madonna College
Hopkinsville, Ky.—Bethel Woman's College
Lexington, Ky.—Hamilton College for Women
London, Ky.—Sue Bennett Memorial School
Louisville, Ky.—Sacred Heart Junior College
Nazareth, Ky.—Nazareth Junior College
Russellville, Ky.—Bethel College
———Logan College
Williamsburg, Ky.—Cumberland College
Clinton, La.—Silliman College
Mansfield, La.—Mansfield Female College
Catonsville, Md.—St. Charles' College
Bradford, Mass.—Bradford Academy
South Lancaster, Mass.—Atlantic Union College
Bay City, Mich.—Junior College [3]
Flint, Mich.—Junior College [3]
Grand Rapids, Mich.—Junior College [3]
Highland Park, Mich.—Junior College [3]
Coleraine, Minn.—Itasca College [3]
Duluth, Minn.—College of St. Scholastics
Eveleth, Minn.—Junior College [3]
Hibbing, Minn.—Junior College [3]
Rochester, Minn.—Junior College [3]
St. Joseph, Minn.—St. Benedict's College
St. Paul, Minn.—Concordia College
Virginia, Minn.—Junior College [3]
Clinton, Miss.—Hillman College
Holy Springs, Miss.—Mississippi Synodical College
Newton, Miss.—Clark Memorial College
Albany, Mo.—Palmer College
Bolivar, Mo.—Southwest Baptist College
Camden Point, Mo.—Missouri Christian College
Carthage Mo.—Ozark Wesleyan College
Columbia, Mo.—Christian College
———Stephens College
Fulton, Mo.—Synodical College
———William Woods College
Kansas City, Mo.—Junior College of Kansas City [3]

JUNIOR COLLEGES (Cont.)

Kansas City, Mo.—St. Teresa College
LaGrange, Mo.—LaGrange College
Marble Hill, Mo.—Will Mayfield College
Mexico, Mo.—Hardin College
Nevada, Mo.—Cottey College
O'Fallon, Mo.—St. Mary's Institute
St. Joseph, Mo.—Junior College [3]
St. Louis, Mo.—The Principia
Roswell, New Mexico—New Mexico Military Institute [2]
North Chili, N. Y.—A. M. Chesbrough Seminary
Lenoir, N. C.—Davenport College
Louisburg, N. C.—Louisburg College
Mars Hill, N. C.—Mars Hill College
Raleigh, N. C.—St. Mary's School
———Peace Institute
Rutherford, N. C.—Rutherford College
Statesville, N. C.—Mitchell College
Weaverville, N. C.—Weaver College
Wingate, N. C.—Wingate College
Bottineau, N. Dak.—North Dakota School of Forestry [2]
Wahpeton, N. Dak.—North Dakota State School of Science [2]
Glendale, Ohio—Glendale College
Bethany, Okla.—Bethany-Peniel College
Claremore, Okla.—Oklahoma Military Academy [2]
Cordell, Okla.—Oklahoma Christian College
Durant, Okla.—Oklahoma Presbyterian College for Girls
Miami, Okla.—Northeastern Oklahoma Junior College [2]
Portland, Oreg.—Columbia University
———St. Mary's College
Wessington Springs, S. Dak.—Wessington Springs Junior College
Cleveland, Tenn.—Centenary College
Cookeville, Tenn.—Tennessee Polytechnic Institute
Henderson, Tenn.—Freed-Hardeman College
Madisonville, Tenn.—Hiwassee College
Memphis, Tenn.—LeMoyne Junior College
Nashville, Tenn.—Ward-Belmont School
Pulaski, Tenn.—Martin College
Arlington, Tex.—North Texas Agricultural College [2]
Beaumont, Tex.—South Park Junior College [3]
Clarendon, Tex.—Clarendon College
Dallas, Tex.—St. Mary's College
Decatur, Tex.—Decatur Baptist College
El Paso, Tex.—College of the City of El Paso [2]
Gainesville, Tex.—Junior College [3]

JUNIOR COLLEGES (Cont.)

Greeneville, Tex.—Burleson College
———Wesley College
Jacksonville, Tex.—Jacksonville College
———Lon Morris College
Marshall, Tex.—College of Marshall
Meridian, Tex.—Meridian College
Plainview, Tex.—Wayland Baptist College
Round Rock, Tex.—Trinity Junior College
Rusk, Tex.—Rusk Junior College
San Antonio, Tex.—Westmoorland College
Sherman, Tex.—Carr-Burdette College
———Kidd-Key College
Stephenville, Tex.—John Tarleton Agricultural College [2]
Tehuacana, Tex.—Westminster College
Terrell, Tex.—Texas Military College
Thorp Spring, Tex.—Thorp Spring Christian College
Waco, Tex.—Paul Quinn College
Weatherford, Tex.—Weatherford College
Wichita Falls, Tex.—Junior College [2]
Ephraim, Utah—Snow College
Ogden, Utah—Weber College
Salt Lake City, Utah—Westminster College
Abingdon, Va.—Martha Washington College
———Stonewall Jackson College
Blackstone, Va.—Blackstone College for Girls
Bristol, Va.—Sullins College
———Virginia Intermont College
Danville, Va.—Averett College
Dayton, Va.—Shenandoah College
Marion, Va.—Marion College
Petersburg, Va.—Southern College
Roanoke, Va.—Virginia College
Staunton, Va.—Mary Baldwin College
Lacey, Wash.—St. Martin's College
Harpers Ferry, W. Va.—Storer College
Keyser, W. Va.—Potomac State School [2]
Montgomery, W. Va.—New River State School [2]
Philippi, W. Va.—Broaddus College
Mount Calvary, Wis.—St. Lawrence College

[1] List furnished by U. S. Bureau of Education, 1927.
[2] State Schools. [3] Part of Public School System.

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